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ABSTRACT

This study investigated variables influencing English as a Second Language (ESL) students' acceptance or rejection of their nonnative English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), noting how time and exposure to their NNESTs modified these feelings. Four NNESTs (from Japan, Argentina, Ecuador, and Switzerland) and 84 ESL students participated. Students were over age 17 years, of both sexes, from 21 different countries, and studying at an intensive English program attached to Brigham Young University, Utah. All students responded to two questionnaires, one given the first day of class in the new semester and the second given 14 weeks later, on the last day of class. Some questions were open-ended, while others consisted of Likert scales and multiple-choice items. Over the course of the same 14 weeks, three separate sets of interviews were conducted with six students. Data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Results indicated that from the beginning of the semester, students had positive attitudes toward their NNESTs, and time and exposure to their NNESTs only made their opinions grow more positive. Different variables significantly influenced students attitudes (e.g., students' first language, students' age, and individual differences between teachers). Survey instruments and data are appended. (Contains 50 references.) (SM)

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ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE STUDENTS' REACTIONS TO NONNATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS

by

Lucie M. Moussu

A thesis submitted to the faculty of

Brigham Young University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

Department of Linguistics

Brigham Young University

April 2002

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ABSTRACT

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE STUDENTS' REACTIONS TO NONNATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS

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Because of the increasing number of people who want to learn English as an international means of communication, as well as the increasing number of teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) who are themselves nonnative speakers of English (NNESTs), current literature encourages second language teachers to become aware of teaching differences among teachers, both natives (NESTs) and nonnative speakers of English, in order to better meet the needs of all teachers and their students.

While previous studies clearly identify a concerned sentiment felt by both the nonnative teachers and their students about the teaching abilities and qualifications of nonnative teachers, almost no study has investigated the feelings of the students themselves, as well as their motivations and expectations when taught by nonnative teachers. For this reason, this thesis studies what variables influence the students'

acceptance or rejection of their NNESTs, and how time and exposure to their NNESTs might modify these feelings.

Four NNESTs (from Japan, Argentina, Ecuador, and Switzerland), and 84 ESL students participated. The students were above the age of 17, of both sexes, from 21 different countries, and studying at the English Language Center (ELC), an intensive English program attached to Brigham Young University (BYU) in Provo, Utah. All students responded to two questionnaires. One questionnaire was given the first day of class in the new semester, and the second questionnaire was given fourteen weeks later, on the last day of class. Some questions were open-ended while others consisted of Likert scales and multiple-choice items. Over the course of the same 14 weeks, three separate sets of interviews were conducted with six students for a better triangulation and observation of the changes in the opinions of the students.

The data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. It was hypothesized that the students would respond negatively to their new NNEST on the first day of class but would change their attitude toward the end of the semester. However, analysis of the data shows that from the beginning of the semester, the students had positive attitudes towards their NNESTs and that time and exposure to their NNESTs only made their opinions grow more positive. It also showed that different variables significantly influenced the students' opinions of their NNESTs. These variables included the students' first language, the age of the students, and individual differences between the teachers.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter One—Introduction 1
Summary of the Problems Presented 9
Questions 10
Chapter Two—Review of Literature 11
The Definition of Native vs. Nonnative 11
Teacher Education 17
The Nonnative English Speaking Teacher 23
The advantages and disadvantages of NNESTs 23
The perception of NNESTs, and hiring practices 29
The Students 34
The Research 38
Chapter Three—Research Design 40
Participants 41
The ELC students 42
The nonnative teachers 46
The native teachers 47
The Pilot Study 49
Instruments 51
The questionnaires 51
Student interviews 53
Analysis of Data 56
Chapter Four—Results 59
Demographic Data 60
Native country and language 60
Age group 61
Other background factors 61
Teachers 64
Feelings and Expectations of the Students at the Beginning of the Semester 64
Learning from a NNEST 66
Cultural knowledge 69
Respect for NNESTs 73

Teacher and Student Variables Which Influence the Students' Perceptions of Their Teachers 78
Gender 80
First language of the students 80
Differences between teachers 85
Age differences of the students 88
Learning of other languages and number of previous NNESTs in the U.S. 89
Number of previous NNESTs in country of origin 89
Intent to return to country of origin 90
The Effects of Time and Exposure on the Students' Opinions 91
Chapter Five—Conclusion 98
Implications and recommendations 101
Recommendations for nonnative teachers and school administrators 102
Recommendations for teachers and students in TESOL programs 104
Implications and recommendations for the TESOL profession 105
Limitations 106
Suggestions for Further Research 108
Conclusion 110
References 114
Appendices 120
A: Initial questionnaires 120
B: Final questionnaires 123
C: Instructions and requests 125
D: Students' interviews 126
E: Questionnaires used for the pilot study 128
F: Descriptions of levels at the ELC 132
G: Tabulated results corresponding to figures in Chapter 4 134
H: All results of the ANOVA analysis for all questions 140
I: Tables corresponding to the discussions of variables 146

LIST OF TABLES

1. Country of origin of the students responding to all questionnaires 43
2. Demographic data 45
3. Nonnative teachers' background information 47
4. Interviewed students' background information 55
5. Number of questionnaires returned by languages 60
6. Number of students per age groups 61
7. I-13: "*Do you plan to go back to your country after you finish your studies in the U.S.?* " 62
8. I-10: "*Have you learned languages other than English*?" 62
9. Means per language group for I-18 *(A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher)* 81
10. Means per language group for I-32 *(I respect and admire this new teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher)* 83
11. Means per teacher for I-33 (*The English pronunciation of my new teacher is good)* 87
12. Means per teacher for I-35 *(My teacher looks like a typical American person)* 88

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Interlanguage continuum, (Medgyes, 1992, p. 341). 4
2. Deficit Model. (Matsuda, 1997, on-line). 28
3. Collaborative Model. (Matsuda, 1997, on-line). 29
4. I-8: Number of previous NNESTs in country of origin. 63
5. I-9: Number of previous NNESTs in the U.S. 64
6. I-16 "*I can learn English just as well from a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher as I can from a NATIVE English-speaking teacher* 66
7. I-18 and F-11 "*A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher*" 68
8. I-22 "*NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions*" 69
9. I-21 "*I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language*" 69
10. I-19 "*Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures*" 70
11. I-20 "*I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers*" 71
12. I-36 "*If I could choose a new teacher today, I would do it*" 72
13. I-32 "*I respect and admire this teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher*" 73
14. I-27 and F-18 "*Would you encourage a friend to take a class with THIS NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher?*" 74
15. I-37 "*I expect this class to be a positive experience in general*" and F-26: "*This class was a positive experience in general*" 75
16. I-30 and F-20 "*I feel that this teacher will be a good teacher for me*" and F-20: "*I feel that this teacher was a good teacher for me*" 76
17. I-31 "*I am not sure yet if this new teacher knows his/her subject very well*" and F-21 "*I think this teacher knew his/her subject very well*" 92
18. Inverted I-31 "*I THINK this new teacher knows his/her subject very well*" and F-21 "*I think this teacher knew his/her subject very well*" 93

19. I-20 and F-13 "*I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers*" 94
20. I-34 "*My teacher seems to know grammar very well*" and F-24: "*My teacher knows grammar very well*" 95

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

In August 1999, a job offer was posted on the Internet and the following exchange of electronic messages took place. This is an exact copy of the exchange, except for the names in the second letter, which have been changed.

08/23/99: To whom it may concern:

My name is Lucie Moussu. I am a 26-year-old French student, currently studying TESOL in the United States. I have spent four years in the U.S. and recently took the ACTFL exam for which I received the mention "superior." I will receive my TESOL certificate next April and am very interested in working in Finland. I would like to know more about your schools, the programs you offer, as well as future job openings. I am currently learning Finnish for no reason other than to find a job in Finland after the completion of my degree in the United States.

Thank you for your help,

Sincerely, Lucie Moussu.

08/24/99: Dear Ms Moussu

Thank you for your interest in [our school]. Unfortunately, all [our teachers] have to be native speakers of the language they teach. For this reason, you would be unable to teach English with [us].

We wish you luck in your future career.

Regards, Piia Heikkonen

Unfortunately, this is the type of response that many nonnative speakers of English (NNSs) receive when they try to apply for an ESL or EFL job (personal interviews, Lia Kamhi-Stein, Paul Matsuda, Icy Lee, and George Braine, March 17, 2000). Sometimes, nonnative speakers do not even attempt to apply for such jobs since it is often clearly stated in the ad itself that only a native English speaker may apply. When asked the reason for this discrepancy, school administrators and native English teachers alike often answer that English native speakers (NSs) are more qualified than NNSs to teach ESL or EFL. In the field of language teaching, there is an argument as to who is going to be the most competent to teach all the needed skills to the students, that is, reading, writing, listening, and speaking. This polemic view of native English speaking teachers (NESTs) versus non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) is becoming increasingly significant as more and more people realize the importance of learning languages in general, and English in particular. These issues of competence often make teachers and administrators wonder about questions such as:

1. What is a "native speaker" of a language?
2. What do NNESTs bring to their teaching that NESTs do not?
3. What feelings do NNESTs have when they stand in front of their students or when they compare themselves to their native English-speaking colleagues?
4. What do the students think about their NEST or NNEST language teachers, and what are their expectations?
5. Do the NNESTs need special training and help? If so, what kind?

This chapter will now address these questions more specifically.

When talking about NNESTs, it is of first importance to define a "native speaker" of a language. This issue becomes particularly important when school administrators have to decide what variety or dialect of English the students will learn or the teachers will teach—American, British, South African, Australian, Indian, Singapore, Canadian, Chicano, South Asian, Jamaican, African American, Irish English, or one of the regional and localized varieties (Prasad, 1997). The *Oxford Companion to the English Language* defines a native speaker as "a person who has spoken a certain language since early childhood" (Christophersen & McArthur, 1992, p. 682). However, many linguists say that a "true" native speaker (NS) of a language becomes harder to find. Indeed, very few people are "born" in a language, learn it, speak it at home and at school, and later at work, and hear only one variety of this language during their entire life. Rather, most English speakers in the world use different varieties of a single language every day. Some people have always used different languages at home and outside the home (when talking to a supervisor or a teacher, for example), while others have learned one language from their mother and another from their father. This makes them "native speakers" of two languages. Further, "migrations, and the diasporic spaces they create, add to the complexity of how an individual chooses to identify herself or himself in terms of language proficiencies" (Prasad, 1997). At the same time, a person who was born and raised in an English-only environment might not necessarily master the English language perfectly. Kramsch (1995) explains that the distinction between native and nonnative speakers is so difficult to make, that a native speaker can only be defined as someone who is "accepted by the group that created the distinction between native and nonnative speakers" (p. 363).

When talking about language proficiency only, however, the issues seem clearer and the advantages of NESTs regarding competency are unquestionable. Medgyes (1992) remarked that on a language proficiency continuum, even the best NNSs of English will never reach "native competence" in spite of all their efforts. As demonstrated in Figure 1, nonnative speakers (NNSs) might be able to come quite close to "native competence" but will always be "halted by a glass wall" (Medgyes, 1992, p. 342), a kind of invisible "plateau" where their language competence will stay blocked.

Figure 1. Interlanguage continuum, (Medgyes, 1992, p. 341).

It is important to remember, however, that this model seems appropriate only to describe speaking proficiency or maybe cultural competence. NNSs of English can be capable of being extremely proficient in writing, for example, even sometime more so than NSs, as the Polish author Joseph Conrad demonstrated so brilliantly.

Contradicting this argument, Barratt and Kontra (2000) explain that NESTs can still provide native language authenticity and genuine cultural background. Their study on the competencies of NESTs shows that the same NESTs, however, are often labeled as not "real" or "inexperienced" teachers because customarily hired only on account of their nativeness. In EFL settings, NESTs also seem to be often unaware of the educational systems of the country where they teach, and sometimes show prejudices against their host culture (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). Finally, it seems that when all the advantages and

disadvantages of the NESTs and the NNESTs are compared, NNESTs also have some distinct advantages despite their language difficulties. Indeed, McNeill's research (1994) shows that NNESTs have a greater ability in predicting the students' difficulties in language learning, especially in the area of vocabulary needs. This is probably because NNESTs have had the same difficulties as their students while learning the language themselves. In accordance with this idea, Medgyes (1992) lists these important advantages:

- Only NNESTs can serve as imitable models of the successful learner of English.
- NNESTs can teach learning strategies more effectively.
- NNESTs provide learners with more information about the English language.
- NNESTs are more able to anticipate language difficulties.
- NNESTs can be more empathetic to the needs and problems of their learners.
- Only NNESTs can benefit from sharing the learners' mother tongues. (pp. 346-347)

These advantages would thus give NESTs and NNESTs particular values or qualities, depending on the setting (ESL or EFL, monolingual classes, etc.) Medgyes (1992) simply states that the ideal teaching situations are therefore the following:

> (a) The ideal NEST is the one who has achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learners' mother tongue;
>
> (b) The ideal NNEST is the one who "has achieved near-native proficiency in English. (pp. 348-349)

Unfortunately, reality is far more complex than that. First, this model does not take into consideration the personalities of the students, the teachers, the English

proficiency of the students, or the teachers' teaching skills. Secondly, questions of settings (ESL or EFL) or different areas of teaching, which probably have an important impact on the teaching situation, have to be considered before such generalizations can be made. Soon, however, after having compared advantages and disadvantages, the issue of who is the best teacher becomes meaningless, since both NESTs and NNESTs have considerable advantages and should eventually stand as equals before their students and their colleagues. According to Barratt & Kontra (2000), language program administrators should also come to this conclusion, change their attitude and programs accordingly, and stop hiring NESTs only because they are native speakers of English. The situation, however, is a little more complex than that, since these simplifications do not take the students' opinions into consideration.

As discussed above, having a NEST is not always ideal for the students even if it often seems so at first because of the perfect accent, language skills, and cultural background associated with NESTs (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). Still, the students, especially in ESL settings, are quite often morose when they first see that their teacher is a non-native speaker of English (Ma, 1993). Because of the fact that many students have invested much time and money into their English studies, they will look down on the NNESTs—they do not represent perfectly the culture and the language the students want to acquire. NNESTs may have a good understanding of writing and grammar principles, but quite often, their accents and the few mistakes they will make can frustrate the students. The NNESTs then lose their status of authoritative figure and feel emotionally threatened by the students. Amin (1997) explains that in many ESL classes, students are immigrants who take language classes in order to affiliate better with their adoptive

English-speaking culture. If the teachers are not native English speakers, the students will quickly reject them as "adequate" instructors. This uneasy situation will force the teachers "to invest a great deal of energy in establishing themselves as authentic teachers" (Amin, 1997, p. 581) in the eyes of their students. Consequently, the teachers will often start questioning their own teaching abilities. This, added to the fact that most new teachers in general face similar challenges in establishing authority, can create quite an exhausting situation for the NNESTs.

In his book *The Non-Native Teacher*, Medgyes (1994) warns against the effects such doubts can introduce and talks about "the cycle of stress" (p. 42). According to Medgyes, NNESTs first become too self-conscious about their mistakes and limitations, and soon begin to lack self-confidence. These bad feelings lead to isolation if teachers do not consciously make the effort to speak out about their problems. Isolation brings tension and a decrease in performance. This decrease in performance may confirm to the teachers that they are indeed not good enough, and the cycle will start again. Of course, not all NNESTs will experience all these circumstances. Teachers with a good perception of their abilities will induce motivation and consequently increase the students' enthusiasm and abilities to learn a new language (Medgyes, 1994; William and Burden, 1997). As Williams and Burden explain, the role of teachers is of great importance, because of their strong influence on their students. The personality of the teachers, their enthusiasm, the way they present the activities and work through their completion, as well as the direction, help, and feedback they give to the students, have a significant influence on the students' perception of their teacher and their self-worth and thus learning abilities.

These arguments lead one to wonder if the teacher preparation (teacher education, or teacher training, as some call it) provided to NNESTs is adequate and sufficient in order for them to feel comfortable and confident while teaching. In many TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) programs around the world, the NNSs of English receive the same education that the NSs do (Braine, 1998; England & Roberts, 1989). When discussing this question, Medgyes (1999) emphasizes that the responsibility of the teacher can be carried out only if the NNESTs have received a good education and preparation in all the needed areas—speaking, listening, pronunciation, reading, writing, vocabulary, and culture. However, since the NNESTs' language abilities are not the same as the NESTs', why then should they receive the same preparation? Indeed, many studies show that there is a need for additional classes, exclusively for NNESTs, or simply focused on NNESTs, which would help them in the areas of vocabulary building, pronunciation, culture, and general fluency (Braine, 1998; Cullen, 1994; England & Roberts, 1989; Medgyes, 1994). Unfortunately, although some TESOL programs are beginning to realize the need for a change, many still offer the same courses for both NSs and NNSs (Kamhi-Stein, 1999; Liu, 1999a).

The NNESTs could also use some emotional support while they are teaching, such as comments from other teachers and supervisors, as well as more collaboration between NESTs and NNESTs (Matsuda, 1997). Matsuda and Kamhi-Stein (1999) both emphasize the need for more collaboration between NSs and NNSs both during the TESOL training and later as professionals, to better meet the language needs of the students in specific situations.

Summary of the Problems Presented

There is indisputably a growing population of people who want or need to learn English. The number of nonnative English speakers in the world is larger than the number of native speakers (Kachru, 1982), and it is difficult to say now what variety of English is right or wrong, and who "owns" the perfect language. On the other hand, some teachers are not hired today because they are not native speakers of the language they want to teach. Other teachers are not hired because they do not speak the right variety of English (Braine, 1998). Indeed, because of these many varieties of English, it is difficult to decide who is a native or a nonnative speaker of a language. What is certain, however, is that a strong dichotomy still exists today. School administrators, when asked if they would hire NS or NNS of English as teachers, still argue over who is going to be the most qualified teacher and often decide arbitrarily that the NESTs are better teachers in all areas.

This is an important issue for NNSs of English, who receive years of training but may not be hired later, especially in ESL settings. If finally hired, however, many NNESTs feel great pressure being in front of their students or when compared (by themselves or the students) to other teachers. This pressure and the inferiority complex that may follow can indeed make the teacher less efficient. On the other hand, one might wonder if these NNESTs have received adequate training to perform as efficiently as possible, so that teaching English does not only become a competition between NSs and NNSs. Finally, one might wonder what the students themselves think about their teachers. It is therefore the intent of this thesis to concentrate mainly on the feelings of ESL students and to research if this dichotomy exists for them, and if so, in what form,

and why. While discussing these problems and issues, it is important to remember that using a terminology (or a mind set) that makes a distinction between NNESTs and NESTs is only useful if it serves the best interest of the students.

Questions

Although this thesis will mainly concentrate on the students' reactions and feelings towards their NNESTs, it seems important to further discuss the issues discussed above since a teaching situation always involves multiple variables. Indeed, teachers, their background and their teaching abilities, as well as the students' motivation and attitude toward learning, will have an impact on how well the teacher is able to teach and how well the students are able to learn. These variables will also strongly influence the students' feelings toward their NNESTs. It thus seems important to discuss in more detail the following questions in the review of literature:

- Is it possible to define a native speaker of a language?
- Is the preparation of NNESTs generally adequate and sufficient in all areas?
- In what areas are NNESTs as qualified as NESTs, or better qualified to be English teachers than NESTs?
- What kind of feelings and expectations do the students have when taught by NESTs or NNESTs?

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Literature

In order to investigate in more detail the role of NNESTs in the classroom and the existing relationship with their students, it is necessary to discuss the situation from different points of view. Indeed, this thesis will be primarily concerned with the feelings and expectations of the students. However, it is important to realize that in a classroom environment, many factors will play a role in allowing the teacher to teach favorably and the students to learn successfully. Because being a good teacher is not only a matter of having a good accent, it seems important not to oversimplify the categorizations between NESTs and NNESTs but to discuss multiple aspects of ESL or EFL teaching and learning. Therefore, the review of literature, as well as the questionnaires used for this research, will address four different areas related to what the students see, hear, and learn in the classroom, as well as what they think, feel, and expect from their teachers. These areas can be categorized into four major sections, which will be addressed in this order:

- The definition of native versus nonnative speakers;
- The education in TESOL available for NNSs;
- The advantages and disadvantages of NNESTs and NESTs, as well as the feelings and problems of both groups;
- The feelings and expectations of the students in both ESL and EFL settings.

The Definition of Native Versus Nonnative

While discussing language varieties, it is important to remember that a perfect variety of the English language does not exist (Kramsch, 1995; Nayar, 1994;

Widdowson, 1993). In fact, all attempts at creating English Language Academies, such as the American Academy of Language and Belles Lettres, founded in 1820, or the National Institute of Letters, Arts, and Sciences (1868) have failed (Millward, 1996). These organizations were opposed by people like Thomas Jefferson who claimed that such institutions would "inevitably try to fix and legislate rather than to guide and to develop" (Millward, 1996, p. 307) the language and go against the national demand for independence and freedom. Some linguists such as Kachru (1982), however, still argue that Standard British English (SBE) is the only right variety of the language, while others accept the fact that English will never be one unique and immovable language but is rather a "living" language, able to evolve and change every minute (Giauque, 1984; Kachru, 1982; Kramsch, 1995; Rampton, 1990; Widdowson, 1993). Even though it seems now difficult to decide what variety of the English makes a native speaker a "real one" since there is no fixed standard and so many acceptable varieties, many linguists have attempted to define this mysterious native speaker with various models.

In the book *The Native Speaker Is Dead!* Paikeday (1985) thoroughly describes his attempts to define what a native speaker of a language is. His interviews with many linguists such as Noam Chomsky and David Crystal scrutinize the usual definition of the native speaker of a language as someone who has an intuitive sense of what is grammatical and ungrammatical in the language. While Paikeday first states that the native speaker "exists only as a figment of the linguist's imagination" (p. 12), Crystal explains that "In an ideal native speaker, there is a chronologically based awareness, a continuum from birth to death where there are no gaps" (p. 18). Paikeday however rejects

this concept since fewer and fewer people actually stay on such continuum, and instead proposes the terms "proficient" or "competent" to replace "native" (p. 48).

Chomsky then suggests that culture and language proficiency tests should be written to identify the native speaker only to add later that the question of "what is the difference between native and nonnative is pointless" because the native speaker is a "myth" (Paikeday, 1985, p. 56). The last question asked by Paikeday is "Are there any self-made native speakers or are they necessarily creatures of the environment?" (p. 79); that is, are native speakers born or made? The answer is that no one knows yet, because no linguist has ever compiled a set of typical instances of the skills typically owned by native speakers, such as "intuition, grammar, competence, etc." (p. 22). Therefore, according to Paikeday, nobody knows if these skills can only be acquired unconsciously or with a conscious effort, and to what extent. Paikeday concludes that the "'native speaker' in the linguist's sense of arbiter of grammaticality and acceptability of language... represents an ideal, a convenient fiction, or a shibboleth rather than a reality like Dick or Jane" (p. 85).

In her plenary address at Long Beach, CA, "The privilege of the nonnative speakers," Kramsch (1995) first states that different cultures speaking different languages have different definitions of native speakers. She adds that since 1985, "the sociocultural turn in second-language-acquisition research and the growing number of multilingual, multicultural speakers around the world have continued to raise doubts about the validity of a native speaker model" (p. 362). Although she does not entirely reject the notion that there is indeed a dichotomy between native and nonnative speakers, she explains that there are many definitions of what a native speaker is. Her first definition is that being a

native speaker is the result of a particular education. "Education bestows the privilege of being not only a native speaker but a middle-class mainstream native speaker. For native speakers have internalized the values, beliefs, myths of the dominant ideologies propagated by schools and other educational institutions" (p. 363). This idea is corroborated by Widdowson (1993), who explains that "'ungrammatical' expressions mark people as nonmembers" (p. 382); that is, a native speaker of English is someone who speaks the right variety of English. In fact, Widdowson affirms that "a majority of those who are born to the language speak nonstandard English and have themselves to be instructed in the standard at school" (379). This idea, revealing that NNESTs may not be the only ones experiencing language barriers or speaking atypical, and sometimes unscholarly, varieties of language, points out once more the difficulty of setting exact boundaries between NESTs and NNESTs.

Kramsch's second definition of a native speaker is that it is a question of birth privilege. Indeed, "it is not enough to have intuitions about grammaticality and linguistic acceptability and to communicate fluently and with full competence; one must also be recognized as a native speaker by the relevant speech community" (p. 363). This idea is corroborated by the Belgian linguist René Coppieters (1987), who says that a speaker of English is someone "who is *accepted as such by the community* referred as that of [English] speakers, not someone who is endowed with a specific formal underlying linguistic system" (p. 565).

Medgyes' (1992) language proficiency "continuum," described in chapter one (see Figure 1), attempts to describe the nonnative speaker as someone who may be able to come close to a perfect and unattainable ideal, but who will never actually be able to

reach that ideal, claimed only by native speakers. However, Nayar (1994) rejected this first model, explaining that the defining features of a native speaker could be "any or all of the following in any combination, with different components assuming prominence according to exigencies and demands of the particular context" (p. 1):

(a) Primacy in order of acquisition

(b) Manner and environment of acquisition

(c) Acculturation by growing up in the speech community

(d) Phonological, linguistic and communicative competence

(e) Dominance, totals and comfort of use

(f) Ethnicity

(g) Nationality/domicile

(h) Self-perception of linguistic identity

(i) Other-perception of linguistic membership and eligibility

(j) Monolinguality. (p. 2)

Nayar adds that the last feature is the only one that guarantees perfect intelligibility, and that very often, some of these features, such as (a), (e), and (j), have primacy over others when deciding who is the "perfect" native speaker. However, "the native-nonnative paradigm and its implicational exclusivity of ownership is not only linguistically unsound and *pedagogically irrelevant* but also politically pernicious, as at best it is linguistic elitism and at worst it is an instrument of linguistic imperialism [italics added]" (Nayar, 1994, p. 4). In other words, even though Nayar recognizes that there indeed exist ways to "label" people according to certain characteristics, he also acknowledges that such

classifications are dangerous and at best, useless. Not all language teachers perceive the problem from the same angle as the linguists, however.

Although Liu (1999a) proposes a language proficiency continuum quite similar to Nayar's, he emphasizes the multidimensional complexity of the definition NS versus NNS:

- Sequence (is English learned first before other languages?)
- Competence (is English our most competent language as compared to other languages?)
- Culture (what cultures are we most affiliated with?)
- Identity (who do we prefer to be recognized as under different circumstances?)
- Environment (did we grow bilingually or trilingually?)
- Politics (why should we label NNSs and NSs in a dichotomy instead of viewing it on a continuum?) (pp. 163-4).

Then, going farther than Nayar, in a discussion of what he calls "politics," Liu (1999a) goes so far as to say that if NESTs want to be accepted as such, they must look like typical white Anglo-Americans. This argument is corroborated by Amin (1997) and Thomas (1999), who tell of their difficulties in being accepted as "native teachers" because of the color of their skin or the variety of English they speak.

It therefore becomes very difficult and obviously pointless to decide who is a native speaker and who is not. Kamhi-Stein (personal interview, March 17, 2000) explains that some nonnative speakers even refuse to be labeled as such because any labeling brings segregation, while other NNSs refuse to accept a negative word ('non'-native) as a label of their abilities and would prefer terms such as "speakers of other

language" or "bilingual speakers." However, since most literature still uses the "native" versus "nonnative" dichotomy, and because of the complexity of this controversial issue, the terms "native" and "nonnative" speakers will still be used in this thesis, "nonnative" speakers (NNSs) being people who, at one point of their life, in addition to speaking a first language, had to consciously learn an academically accepted form of the English language. It must be noted, however, that no derogatory judgements are intended when using these terms and that the reality, as seen above, is far more complex than it seems.

Teacher Education

Once the fact that some people have less proficiency in English than others is accepted, the question of what makes a good teacher comes to mind. Indeed, education, or teacher training, is an important issue for NNSs of English who want to become ESL or EFL teachers, for two reasons. The first and obvious reason is that the education NNSs receive in TESOL programs will have an important impact on their future students. The second reason is that many of these NNSs go to English-speaking countries to receive training and then go back to their country to train new EFL teachers.

In order to find out what kind of education the teachers-in-preparation were given, England and Roberts (1989) surveyed foreign students in TESOL MA programs in the U.S. They found out that about 40% of all TESOL students were NNSs of English. Their study also showed that most programs had different admission requirements for NNSs of English, such as a TOEFL score. However, none of these programs offered different training for NNSs of English, mostly because of lack of research in this field as well as limited financial resources or the school or departments. Interestingly, although most

program administrators recognized linguistic and cultural differences between NSs and NNSs, many did not think there was a need for special adjustments to accommodate NNSs. At the same time, international students were thought of as being an asset to TESOL programs, but most programs were in fact not eager to attract more NNSs of English. England and Roberts did not explain the reason for this discrepancy. One reason may be, however, that some teachers or administrators recognize that there are indeed differences between NSs and NNSs, but they do not know how to confront the problem in a constructive way for all involved parties, nor do they have the resources to make the necessary changes.

Ten years later, Liu (1999b) corroborated that although about 40% of all TESOL students in Northern America, Britain, and Australia (NABA) were international students, these students still received the same training as native speakers of English. Liu also added that many studies have been done and articles written about international teaching assistants (ITAs), in North American, British, and Australian universities, but very little has been written about international TESOL students. Braine and Kamhi-Stein (personal interviews, March 17, 2000) confirm that most studies concerning the training of NNESTs have been done only recently.

In EFL settings, the situation seems to be the same. Medgyes (1999) tells about the Center for English Teacher Training in Budapest, Hungary, where most administrators do not see the need for additional instruction for NNSs of English although a majority of the students there are nonnative speakers. The nonnative English-speaking students, however, constantly ask for additional classes in pronunciation and vocabulary, mostly because of the frustration they later face in front of their students. As Medgyes explains,

English is now an international language, and a near-native command of English is an indispensable tool for the future teachers. This argument is supported by Cullen (1994), who admits that it is of vital importance to give NNSs the opportunity to improve their language skills as much as possible. Because of the ongoing debate about whether or not NSs of English are automatically good ESL/EFL teachers or not, Cullen reflects that in fact, both NSs and NNSs could benefit from being taught grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, and culture. Indeed, according to Cullen, one can teach better something one had to learn consciously first. While Medgyes asks for a separate course for NNSs of English, Cullen proposes a model in which language improvement and conscious learning for both NSs and NNSs would be the central element of the course; the other components of the programs would be planned around it. In this model, "the trainees would first have direct experience of a particular teaching approach, or technique, as genuine language learners, before discussing the approach or technique as teachers" (p. 166). Therefore, the "methodology component [of this program] is 'practice-driven' rather than 'theory-driven,' arising as it does out of the trainees' direct experience of the methodology as learners" (p. 172). This process would allow the trainees to learn not only grammar or vocabulary, but also to experience the learning process their students will later go through.

In more recent years, Kamhi-Stein, Lee, and Lee (1999) conducted a study of self-perceived strengths and needs of NNSs students enrolled in the TESOL MA program at California State University, Los Angeles (CSULA). Kamhi-Stein (1999) emphasizes the idea that a TESOL program tailored to the needs of the NNSs of English will increase the students' motivation and therefore their self-esteem. Such a program should allow the NNSs to develop an understanding of their own assets, values and beliefs, and "should

promote an improvement of the teacher-trainees competencies" (p. 148). The results of the study show that the "nonnative-English-speaking teachers-in-preparation" (Kamhi-Stein et al., 1999, p. 1) saw themselves as being empathic, having an enhanced understanding of the students' needs and knowledge of grammar, and being good role models. On the other hand, the NNS TESOL students pointed out their lack of self-confidence, perceived language needs, and prejudices they had to face in the profession, based on ethnicity, accent, or nonnative status. In response to these findings, new guidelines were implemented in the TESOL MA program at California State University. In her articles "Preparing Nonnative Professionals in TESOL" (1999) and "Adapting U.S.-based TESOL Teacher Education to Meet the Needs of Nonnative English Speakers" (2000), Kamhi-Stein summarizes the changes made at CSULA and also explains what other TESOL programs can do for their NNSs students:

1. The TESOL students are provided with a NNEST mentor, that is, someone who has succeeded at being a NNEST who can answer questions, give encouragement and advice, and introduce the student to the profession. Informal support networks are also organized by nonnative speakers to help new students in TESOL programs, nonnative students when they first start their practicum, and organize individual student-teacher meetings in order to "prevent the isolation of teachers-in preparation" (p. 151).

2. An electronic bulletin allows both NSs and NNSs TESOL students to discuss important issues and share experiences related to their learning experiences as TESOL students as well as their responsibilities as new ESL teachers. Collaboration between NSs and NNSs in class as well as out of class is strongly encouraged. In this collaborative process, it is important to remember that NNSs "have a first-hand understanding of the

linguistic, social, and cultural needs of their target audience and the language teaching situation" (p. 153). On the other hand, the contributions of NSs of English are equally important, because 'they are in a better position to know what is appropriate in contexts of language use, and so to define possible target objectives" (Widdowson, 1994, p. 387).

3. In order to enhance the NNSs' self-confidence and ease them into the profession, opportunities for professional growth are provided. The students are encouraged to work for other CSULA departments where knowledge of ESL/EFL is welcome. They are also asked to initiate and participate in research on the topic of NNESTs and their students. The curriculum also provides opportunities for the students to write and submit articles and present papers at regional, state or international conferences.

4. In class, NNSs share their language learning experiences and case discussions with the NSs in order to allow the NSs to "develop a better understanding of the ESL/EFL learning process" (Kamhi-Stein, 1999, p. 149). This process also lets the NNSs view themselves as an important source of information, which gives them a position of authority and a "voice vis-à-vis their native English-speaking peers" (Kamhi-Stein, 2000).

5. The students reflect on teaching philosophies and on school, country, or program language and teaching policies, as well as on their own beliefs as teachers. They are also asked to challenge "the assumption that only a white Anglo-Saxon native English speaker is a better ESL/EFL teacher" (p. 150) and discuss the history of language teaching (Kamhi-Stein, 1999; Kamhi-Stein et al., 1999).

To these suggestions, Murphey (2000) adds occasional videotaping of one's class during the practicum, in order to become more conscious of good or poor elements of the teaching as well as their language problems. He also promotes participating in mini-conferences, and to take part in "risk logging," which requires the student-teachers to "take one small risk when teaching each week and to write about it" (Murphey, 2000, p. 108). These proposed reorganizations of TESOL programs both in the U.S. and other countries, would allow the NNSs students to become more involved in the profession, to receive a better teacher preparation, and thus to gain better self-esteem in their own teaching abilities. It also gives to student teachers the opportunity to learn from one another's learning styles (Braine, 1999).

As outlined by Barratt and Kontra (2000), Braine (1999), Liu (1999a), and Phillipson (1992), North American, British, and Australian (NABA) TESOL programs still have to understand that their teaching methodologies and philosophies are not yet exportable and useful in every country of the world, especially in Third World countries, where technology there is not as advanced and most facilities are out of reach. Indeed, while most NABA programs now promote movies, CD-ROMs, and the Internet as teaching tools, many English schools around the world can barely afford to buy chairs and a blackboard for their classrooms. Some schools may also require the teachers to use teaching philosophies and textbooks that do not seem quite as modern as the new "communicative" methods taught to TESOL students nowadays (Barratt & Kontra).

Finally, Kamhi-Stein (1999) explains, these changes and awareness of these challenges in current TESOL programs allow the NSs to "acquire a greater awareness of cross-cultural factors affecting L2 acquisition. In addition, NSs [develop] greater

sensitivity to the overt and covert politics of hiring and retaining of TESOL professionals.... Critical to these [changes] is the fact that native and nonnative English speakers see themselves as equal partners, sharing their unique perspectives and learning from one another" (p. 155). In the end, these changes will not directly influence the teachers themselves, but will also have a substantial impact on the students who will be more satisfied with the given education.

The Nonnative English Speaking Teacher

When a student is asked why he or she particularly liked a subject at school, the answer is often that the teacher was an inspiration. Indeed, although individual factors of motivation and students personalities also come into place, the role of the teacher is of indisputable importance. It is therefore of great significance to discuss the teachers' roles and abilities when studying the students' feelings about their English classes and teachers. When talking about "teaching abilities," one has to remember that differences such as the individuality of the teacher, teacher education, the support given by school administrators and other faculty members, as well as many other factors, must be taken into consideration. Therefore, the discussion of NNESTs will be divided in two sections:

1. The advantages and disadvantages of the NNESTs;

2. The perception of NNESTs by administrators and other teachers, and hiring practices.

The advantages and disadvantages of NNESTs. It is important to remember that what is called a disadvantage in one situation can be a critical advantage in another situation, especially when it comes to language teaching. As an example, a vital

difference in language teaching is the setting. As previously discussed in chapter 1, Medgyes (1992) states that

> 1. The ideal NEST is the one who has achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learners' mother tongue;
>
> 2. The ideal NNEST is the one who "has achieved near-native proficiency" in English. (pp. 348-349)

This theory seems reliable in an EFL setting where all the students will speak the same language. In an ESL setting, however, it could hardly be required of the teachers to know all the learners' languages, since students go to English-speaking countries from all over the world. In fact, if a teacher knows the language of one group of students, it may be detrimental to other students who will feel left aside and less important. On the other hand, while earlier linguists advertised the "English only rule" to teach the students, it now seems that knowing the learners' language in an EFL setting is of great importance. This allows the teacher to compare and contrast English particularities with the learners' language from a linguistic or historical point of view. For example, while children can be immersed in a new language without difficulties, adults may need a more "scientific" approach to language learning, depending on individual language skills or needs—pass a high-school course, complete a business English course, graduate with a degree in linguistics, etc. Thus, generalizations about language learning can be made, but one must remember that every situation in every country and every school is different for every teacher and every student. Indeed, as Medgyes (1992) explains, "there are several categories of consideration involved in this context (business, professional, linguistic, moral, political, and others)" (p. 344).

In 1992, McNeill studied the performances of four groups of English teachers in order to compare the NSs with the NNSs teaching abilities. Subjects were two groups of native English-speaking teachers, one of expert teachers and one of novices, and two groups of nonnative English-speakers, one of experts and one of novices. Comparison of the results suggests that native-speaker teachers are at a distinct advantage in identifying problematic vocabulary in connection with reading texts. An intriguing finding was that an extensive teaching experience can improve nonnative-speaking teachers' ability, but it can also "obscure the judgments of nonnative speakers by interfering with their more intuitive judgments about vocabulary difficulty" (p. 12). This contradicts in part Medgyes' (1992) statement that NNESTs are more able to predict learners' difficulties. Likewise, Barratt and Kontra's (2000) study also confirms that native speakers of a language will often discourage their students since they did not learn the English language themselves and do not always know the language of their students. They are therefore unable to make useful comparisons and contrasts with the learners' first language.

In his discussion about advantages and disadvantages of NNESTs, Medgyes (1992) gives three dimensions to his arguments. He first compares NESTs with NNESTs, then the individual advantages of one NNEST compared with the advantages of another NNEST, and finally the individual teaching and language abilities of one NEST compared to the abilities of another NEST. First, when comparing NSs and NNSs, Medgyes says that "it seems that language competence is the only variable in which the NNEST is handicapped" (p. 346); that is, if the language deficiency can be remedied, then NESTs and NNESTs have equal chance to achieve professional success. Second,

Medgyes states that when comparing a nonnative speaker with another nonnative speaker of English, "a nonnative's superiority over a fellow nonnative can only be ascribed to his or her superior English-language competence" (p. 347). Consequently, according to Medgyes, "the more proficient in English, the more efficient in the classroom" (p. 347) is a valid statement. This argument, however, does not take into consideration the fact that other variables come into consideration when defining "efficiency" in the classroom, such as personality of the teacher and the students, level, setting, motivational factors, etc. As Lee (2000) mentions in her article "Can a Nonnative English Speaker Be a Good English Teacher,"

> Students' perceptions of a good English teacher are often affected by two factors: (a) the quality of help students get from the teacher, and (b) their relationship with the teacher. These factors boil down to (a) the teacher's expertise, which includes knowledge and training as well as teaching techniques, and (b) the teacher's personality, which directly influences the teacher-student relationship. (p. 19)

The third dimension discussed by Medgyes (1992) compares the teaching and language abilities of one NEST versus other NESTs. This comparison is useful in settings where only NESTs are hired, and where only the most effective NESTs can be hired. In this situation, the statement "the more proficient in English, the more efficient in the classroom" becomes invalid. The question, according to Medgyes, is "whether or not NESTs can acquire the attributes of which NNESTs are claimed to be the sole or, at least, the superior repositories" (p. 348). Giauque (1984) felt that the situation was not as simple, and that it is not true that any native speaker can teach well. He contended that even though it is important for NNSs to have a good knowledge of the language, it is

equally important that NSs have a good knowledge of contrastive linguistics before being qualified to teach their own language. This argument is supported by Rampton (1990), who asks, "Does 'native speaker' automatically mean one speaks [one's first language] well and has a comprehensive grasp of it?" (p. 98). His answer is simple: being born into a language does not mean that one inherently speaks it well. Again, the problem becomes only one of language skills, as discussed in chapter one. Lee's (2000) conclusion about this seemingly eternal argument is more idealistic and reminds all teachers and students that language skills are just the tip of the iceberg:

> I firmly believe that what makes us [NNSs] good English teachers has nothing to do with our nationality or our accent. Rather, it is the drive, the motivation, and the zeal within us to help our students and make a difference in our teaching that make us better. (p. 19)

To these recommendations, Liu (1999a) adds the importance for the NSs and possibly the NNSs of English of learning a second or third language. Indeed, "it is important to have had experience teaching languages but more importantly to have been a student of a second/foreign language. This creates and establishes trust and rapport with the students at their level of experience" (p. 171). Kramsch (1995) further explains that learners of a second language expand their cultural sensitivity, thereby earning greater abilities to really express themselves without the boundaries of one language. The nonnative speakers and second language learners thus receive the "privilege to create new discourse communities whose aerial [sic] existence monolingual speakers hardly suspect" (p.365).

Rejecting Medgyes' language continuum, Matsuda (1997) explains his ideal model of teacher qualifications. Rather than comparing competencies or deficiencies, an ideal model would look at all teachers as a "cooperative learning community and consider their development holistically" (on-line). Instead of looking at NESTs and NNESTs as two totally distinct groups, one necessarily better than the other, Matsuda emphasizes cooperation and mutual help between NNESTs and NESTs. This idea is strongly supported by Medgyes (1992) and Kamhi-Stein (1999) as noted above. Both groups of teachers have specific advantages that can be beneficial to the other group if communication is established. Matsuda (online) thus demonstrates two models: the most commonly accepted one, which he calls "deficit model" and then an "ideal model," which emphasizes cooperation. The fatalistic or "deficit model of teacher development would look at teachers as individuals only [NS *or* NNS] and consider their qualifications based on what they have or do not have" (on-line) as Figure 2 shows.

Deficit Model (Either/Or)

Discrete: NS or NNS
Competitive: NS vs. NNS
Subtractive: Strengths – Weaknesses

Figure 2. Deficit Model. (Matsuda, 1997, on-line).

On the other hand, the promising and ideal model, emphasizing collaboration and the possibility that both NSs and NNSs have something important and unique to bring to language teaching, looks as follows:

Collaborative Model (Both/And)	
Discrete:	NS and NNS
Competitive:	Mutual Sharing
Additive:	NS's strengths + NNS's strengths

Figure 3. Collaborative Model. (Matsuda, 1997, on-line).

Unfortunately, such ideal cooperation is often nonexistent, and curiously, very little research on such collaboration has been done. As Amin (1997), Braine (1998), and Thomas (1999) explain, NNSs of English will always have to struggle and to work twice as much as the NSs in order to be accepted and respected, especially in ESL settings. Teaching abilities are often not sufficient for employment, and NNSs have to "prove" themselves in front of their colleagues and students. Some participants of Liu's study (1999b) even said that they hid their nonnativeness from their students whenever possible! Braine concludes that the best thing NNSs can do is to "grow as professionals, taking active roles and assuming leadership in teacher organizations, initiating research (even on a small scale), sharing their ideas through publications, and learning to network with NNS colleagues" (p. 14).

The perception of NNESTs, and hiring practices. It seems obvious that hiring practices would be different in English-speaking countries than in the rest of the world. However, no specific studies could be found concerning non-English-speaking countries. Braine (1999) only mentions that while discrimination against NNESTs is almost inevitable in English-speaking countries, prejudices are also strong in other countries,

especially in Asian countries, such as Japan and Korea. "Ironically, the discrimination is spreading to NSs as well. Some [institutions in Asia] insist on having teachers with British accents at the expense of those with American or Australian accents" (p. 26). George Braine, a native from Sri Lanka, who teaches English in Hong Kong, also explains that no such studies have been undertaken since the majority of English teachers in non-English-speaking countries are NNESTs (personal interview, March 17, 2000).

In 1982, Lopez, Ortiz, and Chu conducted a study of hiring practices in foreign language departments of North American universities and colleges. Although this study surveyed a multitude of languages and not English as a Second Language, it still reveals interesting accounts about who is hired and how. The first and expected finding is that NSs and NNSs were not required to have the same qualifications to be hired as faculty—more members of the nonnative-speaking faculty had completed a Ph.D. The second finding was that NS and NNS faculty were hired equally for teaching positions similar in content and level. The third finding was quite surprising, but it must be remembered that this study took place in English-speaking countries. It indicated that there was "a tendency for positions at senior faculty rank to be filled by NNS candidates" (p. 10). While this seems to be good news for NNESTs, it also means that they can attain such positions only in their own country or origin, and not in ESL settings. Although this is pure speculation, the results of this study may indicated a preference for higher faculty positions to be filled by native people, nonnative speakers of the language they teach but who have a better knowledge of the social and hierarchical rules or the school, the university, or the country. Unfortunately, Lopez et al., (1982) did not conduct a similar study in non-English speaking countries.

Going back to teachers of only ESL or EFL, it seems that although the majority of trained ESL/EFL teachers in the world are NNSs of English, and in spite of the efforts of the TESOL association to give equal opportunities to both NESTs and NNESTs, it is still often difficult for NNESTs to find jobs, especially in ESL settings (Braine, 1999; Forhan, 1992). In 1992, the TESOL association published *A TESOL Statement on Nonnative Speakers of English and Hiring Practices*, which reads:

> Whereas TESOL is an international association concerned with the teaching of English to speakers of other languages and composed of professionals who are both native and nonnative speakers of English, and whereas employment decisions in this profession which are based solely upon the criterion that an individual is or is not a native speaker of English discriminate against well-qualified individuals, [...] therefore be it resolved that the Executive Board and the Officers of TESOL shall make every effort to prevent such discrimination in the employment support structures operated by TESOL and its own practices, [and shall work] toward the creation and publication of minimal language proficiency standards that may be applied equally to all ESOL teachers without reference to the nativeness of their English. (p. 23)

This statement does not suggest that standards of language proficiency in English are insignificant factors for future ESL/EFL teachers. Rather, "the statement challenges the practice of using language of birth as an indicator of proficiency or lack thereof" (Forhan, 1992, p. 23). Since 1992, however, little has changed, and such standard test has not yet been created, although some schools have already started to mandate all the prospective teachers to take a vocabulary, grammar, reading, listening and composition exam. The

question remains today of how to assess proficiency levels of both NSs and NNSs with reliable and impartial procedures (Forhan, 1992).

In 1992, Medgyes surveyed ELT specialists at an ELT Journal symposium in London and asked them who they would prefer to hire, given the following choices: (a) only native speakers, even if they were not qualified; (b) a qualified nonnative teacher rather than an untrained native speaker; or (c) the NS/NNS issue would not be a selection criterion. Medgyes' results were that about two-thirds of the sixty or so respondents chose (b), one-third chose (c) and no one chose (a). While these results are interesting, it must be remembered that the given choices were forced on the participants of the study, who did not have the opportunity to give any other answers as to whom they would prefer to hire. The study did not either ask for explanation for the given answers, in spite of the obvious fact that particular situations may have influenced the participants' answers. At the same time, although these results may not seem entirely negative, a quick search on Internet sites advertising ESL and EFL jobs confirms that discrimination between NSs and NNSs is still alive and strong. Indeed, a random search on June 4, 2000 on a famous "ESL Café" reveals that on a list of ten job offers (to Mexico, Poland, Taiwan, San Francisco, China, Africa, Costa Rica, Turkey, and Russia,) four of them advertise only for "experienced ESL/EFL teachers who are native English speakers" or for "native English speakers (from U.S.A./Canada/UK)" (online). Amin (1997), Braine (1999), and Tang (1997) also talk about racial discrimination against teachers who come from the "periphery," that is, who are not white Anglo-Saxon and thus do not "look" like native speakers of English, even though they might be. This is often the difficulty native English speakers from India or Singapore must face when teaching in the U.S., Canada, or

Australia. To these problems, Kamhi-Stein (1999) adds a third dimension: "The teacher-student relationship may be negatively affected not only by factors like ethnicity and language status, but also by gender" (p. 150). This shows that despite TESOL's efforts to abolish discrimination, and despite the effort and the good will of many school administrators, the situation is extremely complex, and will change only very slowly, if ever.

Thomas (1999) explains that NNESTs have to face some serious challenges of credibility, first as students in TESOL programs, then from other teachers, and finally from their students. She reasons that TESOL professionals should first realize the importance of having TESOL faculty members among them. Indeed, as Braine (1999) says: "Although ESL students are praised and admired for multiculturalism and diversity that they bring into language classes, NNSs teachers who can also contribute their rich multicultural, multilingual experiences to ELT are often barred from ESL classrooms" (p. 22). When administrators and NESTs have accepted the NNSs as equal to the NSs, in that they both have important qualities to be efficient teachers, a "trickle down effect is inevitable" (Thomas, 1999, p. 8). Students will in turn respect and accept NNESTs because "we usually learn to value what we see valued and undermine what we see undermined" (p. 8). It seems, therefore, that when the students will be asked how they perceive and accept NNESTs, their answers will be greatly influenced by their school and community's perception and acceptation of these NNESTs.

Finally, a frequent reason for not hiring the NNESTs is "the complex legal process that employers must go through to recruit foreigners" (Braine, 1998, p. 14) as the Immigration and Naturalization Office makes it more difficult every year for foreigners

to qualify for and obtain work visas in the U.S. Indeed, it is often difficult for employers to demonstrate an incontestable need for their school to hire this foreign teacher in particular, instead of a U.S. citizen who would seem more qualified at first glance.

The Students

When discussing the feelings and expectations of the students, it is interesting to notice that only a few studies have been done that actually asked the students themselves for their opinion, most of them not published yet. A few studies, however, have been done, which asked NNESTs for their opinions about their students' feelings. It seems that for NNESTs, one of the most difficult things is not always language proficiency but rather self-esteem and authority in front of their students. Both Greis (1984) and Medgyes (1984) express their concern for teachers who, in spite of their extensive training and experience, still feel much anxiety while in front of students or colleagues. Many teachers fear that their students will choose native speaker teachers, thinking that they are better for one reason or another. Reves and Medgyes (1994) conducted a study about the NNESTs' self-esteem whose main finding was that the perpetual fear of their students' judgment made the teachers constantly self-conscious of their mistakes. This uninterrupted "self-discrimination" often lead to a poorer self-image, which further deteriorates language performance, which, in turn may lead to a cumulatively stronger feeling of inferiority (Reves and Medgyes). Claxton, (1989) (as cited in Medgyes, 1994) demonstrates:

> What started out as an objective assessment like "That lesson didn't go as well as I had expected" gets recast as "I made a mistake," which leads to "I'm a poor teacher" and even "I'm a failure (as a person)." (p. 42)

This point of view may seem extreme, and it must be remembered that similar feelings might be felt by other language teachers, new teachers of all languages, or any teacher with a poor self-esteem. It is interesting to notice however, that it seems acceptable for NESTs to make some occasional mistakes while teaching, or not to know all the details about the English language. On the other hand, when NNESTs make the same mistakes or do not know everything about the English language, their teaching abilities and competencies are often immediately questioned. This attitude, from the students, the NNESTs colleagues, and often even from the NNESTs themselves, will often lead to the feelings of inadequacy described above.

Concerned with similar matters, Ma (1993) investigated the feelings of U.S. University students when taught by International Teaching Assistants (ITAs). Although ITAs are not ESL teachers and rarely even language teachers, they still represent an international culture in north-American universities, and bring to the teaching place different language abilities, as well as foreign ways of teaching and learning. These ITAs also have to work with U.S. teachers and students from a culture different from their own, a situation quite similar to that of NNESTs in ESL settings. Unlike NNESTs, however, these ITAs do not have to be proficient in English in order to know the subject they teach.

Ma's (1993) study showed that students had mixed feelings about their ITAs. Though being recognized as an asset to U.S. education because they brought diversity and often had excellent knowledge of their subject, the ITAs were still expected to

improve their English proficiency and cultural understanding. One of the most common complaints of the students in this study was the difference in teaching styles and class procedures (for example, how the ITAs asked for comments, gave time for questions, or handled problems). This, however, also seems to happen when NESTs go to non-English speaking countries and try to apply their modern teaching philosophies to more conservative countries (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Barratt & Kontra, 2000). A fascinating result of Ma's study was also the realization that students who had previously learned any foreign language or had had previous contact with the ITAs' culture had fewer difficulties in understanding the teaching differences and were more enthusiastic about having an ITA. In fact, any previous contact with someone from another culture seemed to make the students more satisfied with their instruction and more motivated. A similar study conducted by Bauer and Tanner (1993) also indicated that "the students tend to expend more effort in assisting the ITA with her or his language difficulties" (p. 407) when they realize how concerned their ITA is with helping the students learn better. This concept relates to Lee's (2000) statement that it is the teacher's motivation and encouragement to the students, which really makes a difference in the classroom. Indeed, a good student-teacher relationship can lower the teachers' and the students' anxiety, therefore allowing the teachers to develop a better self-esteem in their teaching abilities, and the students to learn more effectively.

In a study in a major Midwestern university, Liu (1999b) asked ITAs, NSs and NNSs language teachers, to define the feelings their students had for them. The study shows that the perception of the students does not always reflect reality. Indeed, some teachers were thought of as being NSs of English although they considered themselves as

NNSs, while some NSs were treated as NNSs because of their race or accent. The level of the students also seemed to influence the students' perceptions and acceptance of their teachers. Graduate students highly respected and admired the NNSs for their English proficiency and accomplishments. On the other hand, undergraduate students seemed to be more intimidated by NSs of the language they were taught because they thought the NSs were harder to understand, harder to please, and graded tougher. This seems to contradict Arva and Medgyes' study (2000), which shows that NNESTs are often criticized for being "stricter teachers, possibly because they have an enhanced feeling of responsibility," while NESTs are often criticized for their permissiveness and casual attitude in class. This contradiction might be the result of the setting (ESL or EFL), the subject taught, or possibly of the NNESTs being from different countries and therefore having different teaching styles. Indeed, Arva and Medgyes (2000) also discuss the fact that NABA-trained teachers usually favor a more relaxed atmosphere in class, while teachers trained in Europe, Eastern Europe, and Asia have stricter educational customs.

When talking about the language classroom, it is also important to remember that the teacher is not the only person who makes a lesson "good." The students' motivation also plays a major role in how well the students will learn the second language (Rodriguez-Brown & Rusta, 1987; Williams & Burden, 1997). Even with the best NEST, some students will simply not perform well in English, because they were forced to take a language class or because their personality does not match with that of the teacher. Rodriguez-Brown, Rusta, Williams, and Burden argue that success in second language learning will be influenced particularly by attitudes of the students towards the community of speakers of that language and its culture. The terms "instrumental" and

"integrative motivations" or "intrinsic" and "extrinsic motivation" are often used to describe different kinds of motivation (Liu, 1999b; Brown, 1994; Rodriguez-Brown & Rusta, Williams & Burden). The results of students who have intrinsic and integrative motivation are often better than the results of other students, as Brown summarizes: "The eventual success that learners attain in a task is at least partially a factor of their belief that they indeed are fully capable of accomplishing the task" (p. 23).

In summary, while the personal teaching philosophies and language proficiency of the teachers are in part responsible for generating enthusiasm and motivation in the classroom, it is widely accepted that the students' attitude toward language learning highly influences their abilities to learn the second language and their acceptance of a teacher (Brown; Williams & Burden). This is an important principle that parents, students, school administrators, and all language teachers should remember when considering NNESTs teaching abilities. When analyzing the students' comments about their NNESTs and NESTs in further studies, it could be interesting to observe the correlation between the intrinsic motivation of the students and their acceptance or rejection of their NNESTs. Different kinds of motivations to learn English may also influence the students' choices of native or nonnative teachers before the semester starts, as well as their feelings toward their teachers during the semester.

The Research

The issues discussed above all relate to what happens in the classroom and therefore to the student-teacher interactions. These issues are thus meaningful to all language teachers around the world and deserve additional research. However, because of

the scarcity of studies directly concerning the feelings of the students (Kamhi-Stein, personal interview, March 17, 2000; Liu, 1999b), this thesis will concentrate on one research area only. The expectations and feelings of the students taught by NNESTs will be studied here, as well as the individual variables that would influence such feelings, and how these feelings change or not with time and exposure to the nonnative.

Three research questions can now be proposed:

1. What kind of feelings and expectations do the students have at first when taught by NNESTs and why?
2. What other teacher and student variables (such as gender, age, first language, etc.) influence the students' perceptions of their teachers, both at the beginning and the end of the semester?
3. How do the variables of time and exposure to NNESTs influence the students' perceptions of their teachers?

CHAPTER THREE

Research Design

While the number of people who want to learn English as an international means of communication is increasing and the number of needed ESL or EFL teachers is growing every day, literature, a glance at job offers on the Internet, discussions with professionals (personal interviews, Lia Kamhi-Stein, Paul Matsuda, Icy Lee, and George Braine, March 17, 2000 and April 11, 2002), and personal experience show that the feelings of students and school administrators toward nonnative teachers are often negative. Most research, however, does not discuss at all the point of view of the ESL or EFL students taught by those teachers. The intent of this thesis was thus to explore exactly what the ESL students feel about their nonnative teachers and why, as well as whether exposure influences the students' perceptions of their teacher's competencies or not. This research also tried to determine teacher or student variables that would influence or create these changes in the students' feelings about their NNESTs, if any occur, as well as the nature of the changes that could take place during the fourteen weeks (one semester), together with the reasons behind these changes.

As this chapter will explain, two questionnaires (one initial, and one final) were used to ask ESL students from several countries around the world and taught by nonnative English-speaking teachers in an ESL school in Provo, Utah, for their opinion of their nonnative teachers. In addition to these questionnaires, a few interviews were conducted with randomly selected students. This chapter will thus first describe the characteristics of the students and teachers participating in the research before discussing the material and procedures that were used to conduct the study.

Participants

The original design for this study was to include native English-speaking teachers and nonnative English-speaking teachers, and students from different intensive English programs around the United States which would have the same characteristics (native and nonnative staff, 14-week-long semesters, and college-bound international students). After the initial contact was made with such programs, however, most schools declined to participate, either because they said they did not have any NNESTs, or because they did not want them to participate in any such study. These responses were not at all anticipated. As a result, the focus of the research shifted from an extensive survey of teachers and students to an intensive study involving only one English language program, Brigham Young University's (BYU) English Language Center (ELC), and the group of NESTs, NNESTs, and students at this university-based institution.

The ELC is an intensive English program attached to Brigham Young University, in Provo, Utah. In the fall of 2000, there were 230 students, representing 33 different countries, registered at the ELC. Teaching faculty consisted of four NNESTs and 27 NESTs, most of them working toward a TESOL Graduate Certificate or Master's degree while teaching at the ELC, a program under the direction of the Department of Linguistics and English Language.

At the beginning of fall semester 2000, 88 students were registered in the seven classes taught by the four participating NNESTs. At first, the questionnaires, along with a set of guidelines, were distributed by the researcher to the nonnative teachers. After a week of class, 83 questionnaires filled by the students were returned by the class teachers. The same process took place at the end of the semester and 81 questionnaires were

collected that time. The difference in numbers is due to the fact that some students were transferred to a different class after the first few days of class or left the ELC before the end of the semester and therefore did not fill out the final questionnaire. Other students enrolled late, after the beginning of the semester, therefore answering only to the final questionnaires. This means that the 81 students who answered the final questionnaire were not necessarily all the same than the 83 who answered the initial questionnaire.

It is also important to notice that because the ELC students are usually taught by four different teachers every day (native and nonnative), some overlap took place—this means that some students might have been taught by two different nonnative teachers and might consequently have filled out more than one questionnaire. Since 13 students answered more than one questionnaire, the total number of individual students who participated in the study was 84 and the total number of questionnaires gathered was 97. Because of these small numbers, the significance level of the P-value was set at 0.05.

The ELC students. The students who participated came from 21 countries throughout the world, as can be seen in Table 1. The majority of the students came from South American and Asian countries. For this reason, and because of difficulties (explained below) encountered during the pilot study, some of the questionnaires used for the research were translated by Arthur International (a translation company based in Orem, Utah) into the five languages spoken most commonly at the ELC, namely Spanish, Chinese (Mandarin), Brazilian Portuguese, Korean, and Japanese. Brigham Young

University's English Learning Center paid for all the translations as well as the photocopies needed for this research[1].

Table 1

Country of origin of the students responding to all questionnaires (n=97)

Country	Totals	Percent
Mexico	22	22.68
Japan	16	16.49
Korea	13	13.40
Brazil	11	11.34
China	8	8.25
Argentina	3	3.09
Armenia	3	3.09
Mongolia	3	3.09
Spain	3	3.09
Ecuador	2	2.06
France	2	2.06
Peru	2	2.06
Chile	1	1.03
Columbia	1	1.03
Oman	1	1.03
Palestine	1	1.03
Russia	1	1.03
Switzerland	1	1.03
Syria	1	1.03
Thailand	1	1.03
Venezuela	1	1.03

Because of the length and the complexity of the questionnaires, these translations allowed for a better and faster comprehension of the questions for most of the ESL students, especially those who were at lower levels. Since the results would be analyzed

[1] Although the ELC does not usually give such money for research, it was justified this time due to the focus of the research. ELC administrators deemed it important to know how its nonnative teachers are perceived by their students.

quantitatively and to make the statistical analysis highly reliable and indicative of the students' true opinion, it was important to make sure that all students understood the questions thoroughly. Yet, because of the high cost of the translations (especially for less common languages) and the very small number of speakers of languages such as Armenian, Arabic, Thai, German, French, and Mongolian, the questionnaires were not translated into these languages. Consequently, 14 of the 97 students received an English version of the questionnaire. To compensate for this problem as much as possible, all the students who had the English version of the questionnaires were allowed to make comments and answer the open-ended questions in their own languages. This must be remembered while analyzing the results, since the 14 students who received the English version did not have the same chances of understanding the questions as the students who received a translated version did (especially students of lower levels, but fortunately in this case, no students at very low levels participated).

All the participating students were in their first, second, or even third semester at the ELC, one "semester" being fourteen weeks or approximately four months, as established by the ELC. Some students had arrived in the U.S. just a few days before the beginning of the semester. Others had been in the U.S. for as many as five years, strongly skewing the distribution to the left (mean: 8.5 months; SD: 20.08). A total of 46.6% of the total number of participating students were at level three, 15% were at level four, and 38.5% were at level five. The reason why no students from levels one, two, or six participated in the study is that no nonnative teachers were teaching at these levels at the time the research took place. At shown in Table 2, 42.9% of the students were males and 57.1% were females, a good representation of the general student population of the

school during this fall semester, where 37.7% of the students were males and 60.3% females.

Table 2

Demographic data (n=83)

Question	Totals	%
Gender:		
a) male	36	42.9
b) female	48	57.1
Age group:		
1. 17-20	29	34.5
2. 21-23	8	9.5
3. 24-26	15	17.9
4. 27-29	20	23.8
5. 30+	12	14.3
Why are you learning English? (circle all that apply)		
a) to go to an English-speaking university	51	42.84
(b) for work	27	22.68
(c) for immigration	3	2.53
(d) because English is important	47	39.48
(e) for other reasons (explain) _____	6	5.04
Do you plan to go back to your country after you finish your studies in the U.S.?		
a) yes	57	60.00
b) no	8	8.42
(c) not sure yet	30	31.58

Also representative of the patterns of the school are the different age groups in which the students were distributed, as can be seen in Table 2. These groupings were

initially of only three years each (18-20, 21-23, 24-26, 27-29, and 30+), but it appeared that two participating students were 17 and consequently the first age group was extended to include them. This does not change the fact that this first age group is the largest group of all, followed by the 27-29 age group. Other demographic data included in Table 2 were variables that were thought to influence the answers of the students to other questions and will be discussed more later.

Permission to conduct this research was granted by the ELC executive committee, which is able to approve studies dealing with human subjects which are "exempt" in status. There was no need to ask for further approval from Brigham Young University's Institutional Review Board since no tape or video recordings took place during the research. A consent form was also included at the beginning of the questionnaires to explain the research and guarantee the anonymity and willingness of the participants.

The nonnative teachers. The four NNESTs from the ELC who participated in this research study will be identified here by pseudonyms related to their country of origin: Mr. J. was from Japan, Ms. A. was from Argentina, Ms. E. was from Ecuador, and Ms. S was from Switzerland. All of them had been teaching for more than one semester. Three of them were teaching grammar classes, while the fourth one (Ms. E.) was teaching two listening/speaking classes. The researcher did not have any control on how many teachers participated in the study—only four NNESTs had been hired to teach at the ELC during the fall semester, whereas nine NNESTs had taught there the previous semester, when the pilot study took place. A fifth teacher, originally from Cambodia, dropped out of the study when she argued that she considered herself a native English speaker because she

had come to the U.S. as a child. (This goes back to the question: what is a native speaker?). Table 3 gives more information about the participating teachers.

The teaching and English backgrounds of these teachers were varied. Ms. A., who had received a BA in TESOL, had had only five years of formal education in English and had begun the majority of her formal study of English at BYU after she had arrived from Argentina three years earlier. Ms. E., who had received a TESOL MA degree, came to the U.S. when she was 15 and had practically no Spanish accent in her English. She introduced herself to her students as being both from Ecuador and from the U.S. Ms. S., who had a TESOL Graduate Certificate at the time of this study, had taken 15 years of English lessons before coming to the U.S. five years earlier. Mr. J., who had a TESOL MA degree, came from Japan where he had learned English for 10 years. He had been teaching ESL at the ELC for six years already.

Table 3

Nonnative teachers' background information (n=4)

Teachers' name	Language	Degrees received	Teaching experience	Number of years learning English
Mr. J.	Japanese	MA TESOL	6 years	10 years
Ms. E.	Spanish	MA TESOL	5 years	10 years
Ms. A.	Spanish	BA TESOL	3 years	5 years
Ms. S.	French	TESOL Graduate Certificate	One semester	10 years

The native teachers. As discussed in Chapter 2, many factors (accent of the teacher, personality, teaching style, class dynamics, etc.) influence the nonnative teachers and the way they teach as well as the way the students perceive these teachers. Because

this is also true of native teachers, a parallel study took place during the same semester and at the same school, but this time with native teachers. Indeed, it was thought that while some students might not like their nonnative teachers other students might not like their native teachers, for reasons other than language proficiency, such as those mentioned above. Two questionnaires for native teachers were thus written, one initial and one final, and given to 84 students who, this time, were taught by native teachers. This time, the questions asked were of course slightly different from those on the questionnaires for NNESTs. For example, there was no question about the accent or appearance of the teacher.

Some important problems took place during the study, however. First, because the students have four class periods per day, usually with four different teachers, some very important overlap took place, and some students filled out as many as four questionnaires, two about their NNESTs and two about their NESTs or one about their NNEST and three about their NESTs. Second, because of some unexpected obstacles (such as the price of translation and time constraints), neither the initial nor the final questionnaires about NESTs was translated. Therefore, all the students in the "NEST" group received the English version only. Interviews took place, however, with the same number of students. For these reasons, and although important because it represent a kind of "control group," a way to verify if the students only disliked their NNESTs or all their teachers in general, the data collected during this parallel study will not be discussed in this thesis except for a few indicative comments, as a means of comparison.

The Pilot Study

Before describing the instruments (questionnaires and interviews) used to conduct this research, it is important to talk about the pilot study, which took place during the summer of 2000 and greatly shaped the way the research later took place. Next, the questionnaires that were used, as well as the interviews with the students, will be discussed.

During the spring-summer semester of 2000 (May to August), a pilot study was conducted at the ELC. Many elements of the pilot were somewhat different from the final study. First, all the questionnaires for the pilot study were given only in English, while the majority of the questionnaires for the final study were translated into the languages of the students. A second difference was in the number of teachers who participated in the study. Although nine NNESTs were teaching at the ELC at the time of the pilot, only two participated in the pilot (one teacher taught a Grammar 4 class, and the other one, the researcher, taught a Grammar 5 class and a Grammar 4 class, which amounted to 36 participating students). At the end of the pilot study, a few questions that seemed repetitive or useless to the study were eliminated from both the initial and the final questionnaires. At the same time, new questions were added, particularly background questions about the students, to facilitate the matching of the initial questionnaire with the final one (as described in more details later). Many questions were also simplified after it became obvious that some students, even those at level 5, had not understood the questions well. For this reason too, the decision was made to translate the questionnaires into the five most commonly spoken languages at the ELC—Spanish, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, and Mandarin Chinese.

The order of the questions was also changed somewhat to follow a more logical sequence, and the instructions on the questionnaires were ameliorated and broadened. Indeed, the instructions were understandable for U.S. students used to answering a typical form of U.S. questionnaires. However, it became obvious that, for example, some international students had difficulties understanding how to answer multiple choice items. The comments about anonymity and the short description of the research given to the students for the pilot study were previously written on a separate sheet of paper that the students had to sign if they agreed to participate in the study. In the end, these instructions were shortened and included at the beginning of the questionnaires, while the statement "Return of this questionnaire implies your consent to participate in this research" was added. The general layout of the questionnaires was also improved to enhance comprehension. A last but important difference between the pilot and the final study was that no student interviews were conducted during the pilot study.

Interviews with the students were added to the final study for several reasons. First, because it added data for a better triangulation and amplification of the findings. Second, because a study using questionnaires was only viewed by the researcher as too "cold." Third, because it was thought that the students could not entirely express their feelings about their teachers by circling numbers on a questionnaire. Finally, the three interviews, which took place at regular interval during the semester, (after the initial questionnaire and before the final one), allowed the researcher to observe changes in the opinions of the students throughout the semester.

Thus, the research was conducted in two stages: at the beginning and the end of the semester the initial and final questionnaires were administered to all the students (see

Appendices A and B). At the same time, and after a random selection, requests for participation were sent to these selected students (see Appendix C) and three short interviews took place during the semester at equal intervals (see Appendix D). Both the questionnaires and the interviews will now be discussed in more detail.

Instruments

The questionnaires. The two questionnaires that were written (initial and final) were based on insights gained from the review of literature as well as a questionnaire used by Marquez (1998) in her study of undergraduate opinions and attitudes towards ITAs. For her research, Marquez (1998) used an adaptation of the "Questionnaire of Undergraduates About International Teaching Assistants" (QUITA) written by Wanda Fox (Purdue University, 1991), (originally designed to measure the attitudes of American students toward international teaching assistants). Marquez used only multiple choice items and Likert scale questions for her study. No open questions were asked in her questionnaire. In an effort to better gather students' attitudes towards their NNESTs, open-ended questions were added in the current research that asked specifically about their nonnative teachers. This type of questions can be both an advantage and a disadvantage. Indeed, while easy to grade and analyze, multiple choice questions do not allow the participants to make any personal comments or to add details if they feel that the given choices do not truly reflect their opinion. Other differences between Marquez' study and the one done here include the changes made after the pilot study, such as the simplified vocabulary adopted for the questionnaires to allow for better comprehension, as well as in the addition of interviews with the students.

A fourteen-week time gap was allowed between the initial and the final questionnaires. It was hoped that this time gap would prevent the students from remembering what they had written on the initial questionnaire when they filled the final one. With the students not remembering their previous answers, the effects of time and exposure would emerge more clearly.

Whereas the initial questionnaire was composed of 40 questions, the final one had only 29 questions, since some questions about NNESTs teachers in general were not asked twice. Some questions used a multiple choice response format; others employed Likert scales (used to expressed an opinion from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) about every question); and the last part of the questionnaire was composed of a few open-ended questions (see previous discussion and Appendices A and B).

The two questionnaires contained similar questions but also included some important differences. Questions about the students' feelings on their first day of class were asked in the initial questionnaire, while questions about the changes that took place during the semester were included in the final one. The initial questionnaire included questions about the physical appearance of the teachers, as well as their accents and grammar proficiency, whereas only the final one asked questions about knowledge of culture, authority in the classroom, and communication between teachers and students. In addition to specific questions about the students' teacher, the initial questionnaire also asked a few questions about all NNESTs in general that the final questionnaire did not ask.

On the other hand, in order for the researcher to match the initial with the final questionnaires for all the participating students, the final questionnaire asked some of the

same personal questions as the initial one (such as country of origin, age group, gender, student number, etc.). Because it was anticipated that some students might be anxious about being identified by the researcher due to their student number, it was expected that most students would not write their student number on the questionnaires. The expectations were confirmed after the initial questionnaire was administered. Therefore, the matching proved very difficult, although the multiple background questions helped. In the end, only the questionnaires of the students who had not answered both the initial and the final questionnaires were not matched (see more about this on page 57).

To better reassure the students about the privacy and anonymity of this study, a short statement explaining the purpose of the study and how the anonymity and privacy of the students would be respected was included at the beginning of all the questionnaires. This statement also gave students the choice not to answer the questionnaires or to drop out of the study at any time, and students who had to fill out the English version of the questionnaire were given the choice to answer the open-ended questions or to make comments in their own language. Instructions to the teachers were given on a separate sheet, regarding the explanations they should give to their students before and after administering the questionnaires (see Appendix C).

Student interviews. Three sets of interviews were conducted to investigate any changes that may have occurred throughout the semester regarding the students' feelings about their teachers. From every class taught by NNESTs, three students were randomly selected to be interviewed and a short introduction to the research and request for participation were given to the selected students (see Appendix C). It was thought that two randomly chosen students from every class could represent the feelings of most of

the students in the classes. The third student was mostly a contingency plan in case of attrition of participants.

Bigger problems of attrition than those expected quickly emerged, however. Of the fourteen students taught by NNESTs who were asked to participate (actually only 13 different individuals, since one of them was randomly selected twice, from two different classes), only eleven responded. Of these eleven students, only six students came to the interview, but one of them had to drop out of the study when it was discovered that she had changed levels and was no longer taught by a NNEST. The other students simply never responded to the request for participation, even after a second attempt to ask them for help. For all these reasons, in the end, only five students, who can not adequately represent the feelings of all the students taught by NNESTs, agreed to participate in the interviews.

It is also important to note that not all the NNESTs participating in this study were represented by their students in the interviews, since one of the four teachers was the researcher. Naturally, she did not think it appropriate to ask her students about their feelings toward her own teaching. There are, therefore, no interviewed students from level 4 since the researcher was the only nonnative teacher at this level. Another problem with the representativeness of these interviews is that three out of the five interviewed students came from Asia, and only one from South America (Brazil). These numbers do not reflect the 45% of the students at the ELC that fall who were from South America, and more specifically Mexico (19% of the total student population at the ELC). (These numbers might reflect, however, different cultural attitudes toward responsibility.)

Although all these problems do not limit or affect the analysis itself, they do affect the validity of the results of that analysis. The data collected during the interviews will therefore serve as a second opinion and a more humane expression of the statistical analysis of the questionnaires, confirming or refuting numbers for better triangulation.

Background information on the interviewed students is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Interviewed students' background information

Pseudonym	Country of origin	level	Semesters at the ELC	Interviewed about which nonnative teacher?
Hyesoo	Korea	3	First	Ms. E.
Nonna	Armenia	5	First	Mr. J.
Vinicius	Brazil	3	Second	Ms. A.
Misato	Japan	5	First	Mr. J.
Haru	Japan	3	First	Ms. E. and Ms. A.

The questions used for the student interviews (which can be found in Appendix D) consisted of about six open-ended questions, different each time. While some questions directly asked the participants for their feelings toward their native or nonnative teachers, other questions were introduced as icebreakers or as distractors so that the participants would not know exactly what the research was about. However, during the final interviews, specific questions were asked about the differences between native and nonnative English-speaking teachers. Questions included for example "Remember the first day of class with this teacher, what were your emotions?" or "What is one of your teacher's strengths and one of his/her weaknesses?" as well as "Now that you have been

here for a whole semester, what are your impressions of the ELC, your classes, and your teachers?" After these open-ended questions, four more questions were asked, always the same for every interview, using Likert scales from 1 to 10 for the answers. These two different types of items were used in order to provide data that could be quantitatively as well as statistically analyzed.

During the interviews, the questions were asked in the same order, but some rephrasing, repetition, or probing occasionally took place when the students did not understand the questions or did not know what to answer.

Analysis of Data

In order to avoid an overlapping analysis of the answers of the 13 students who responded to two questionnaires, as discussed at the beginning of this chapter, the questionnaires were divided into four parts:

(1) demographic questions,

(2) quantitative questions about teachers (NNESTs or NESTs) in general,

(3) quantitative questions about specific teachers, and

(4) qualitative (open-ended) questions about teachers in general.

When the students answered more than one questionnaire, only the second, third, and fourth parts were analyzed more than once, while the first part (demographic background information) was not used more than once per individual student. This allowed for accurate numbers in the respondents' demographic data. On the other hand, while it seems obvious that the answers in the third part would be different depending on the specific teacher, it also appeared that the answers to the second part were influenced

by the teacher who was in front of the students while they were filling out the questionnaire. Thus, although the questions had seemed quite general at first, (such as "Students' attitudes affect how well a teacher teaches in general") all the answers were recorded and analyzed, even if given twice by the same student. It was thus of vital importance to match the two or sometimes three questionnaires individual students might have answered so that only one of them would be used for the analysis of the demographic data.

To be able to match the questionnaires easily, the ID number of the students was asked at the beginning of all the questionnaires. Because it was anticipated that some students would not remember their ID number or would not be willing to write it, all the questionnaires also asked questions about the country of origin, first language, sex, and age group or the students to facilitate the matching. As anticipated, many students did not want to write their ID number. Others wrote their number but started to work during the semester and therefore received a Social Security number, different from their initial school ID number that they used at the beginning of the semester. In the end, it became very difficult to match the questionnaires even with the demographic questions, not so much with smaller language groups such as Chinese or Armenian, but particularly with the Spanish-speaking group of female students in the youngest age group (see also discussion on page 53). The number of 84 individual participating students given above might be therefore slightly approximate although much time and effort were put into the matching. The total number of questionnaires analyzed for this study is, however, correct.

For the statistical analysis itself, help was obtained from the Statistics Department of Brigham Young University. First, the student background information was analyzed

(gender, the average number of months students spent in the U.S. or the students' average age, etc.). Descriptive statistics were used to categorize the students into different groups representing the different independent variables later addressed in the research questions. Second, the rest of the data analysis concentrated on the research questions proposed in chapter two.

Statistically, the initial questionnaire was first analyzed to give frequencies and percentages for every question using the multiple-choice and Likert scale formats. Then, ANOVAs showed the influence of individual variables (such as age, gender, etc.) on the results of the frequencies. Finally, a comparison of the T-tests' results of both the initial and the final questionnaires displayed the influence that time and exposure had had on the responses of the students.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

With one look at the ESL job offers posted on the Internet or elsewhere, one can realize that many of these specify "for native teachers only." Because more than half of the newly trained English teachers are not native speakers of English (Braine, 1999), it seems important to study if these teachers are wasting their time or if their future students will actually accept them as competent teachers or not. In order to study the reactions of ESL students taught by nonnative English speakers, the study introduced in the preceding chapters was done. Two questionnaires were written and given to ESL students, one at the beginning of the semester and one at the end, and a set of three interviews was conducted with a small group of students. The data gathered through the questionnaires and interviews will be analyzed and discussed in this chapter.

The organization and subdivision of this chapter will concentrate on the following research questions:

1. What are the demographics of the students and teachers who participated in the study?
2. What kind of feelings and expectations do the students have at the beginning of the semester, when taught by NNESTs?
3. What teacher and student variables influence the students' perceptions of their teachers at the beginning of the semester?
4. How do the variables of time and exposure to NNESTs influence the students' perceptions of their teachers?

Demographic data[2]

Native country and language. As explained in Chapter 3, during fall semester 2000, 97 questionnaires were returned by the students taught at BYU's ELC by NNESTs. Because 13 students answered two questionnaires (see Chapter 3), the total number of students who participated in the study is 84, 36 (42.9%) males and 48 (57.1%) females.

The 97 questionnaires (see table 5) were answered by 84 students. Of these 84 students, 31 (39.6%) spoke Spanish, 12 (14.3%) spoke Japanese, 11 (13.1%) spoke Korean, 9 (10.7%) spoke Portuguese, 8 (9.5%) spoke Chinese, and 13 (15.5%) spoke other languages. Both the gender and the first language of the students were used in this study as dependent variables in order to investigate if they influenced the responses the students gave to the questions in the initial and final questionnaires. Table 5 gives a detailed breakdown the number of questionnaires given to the students by language. (Table 1 in Chapter 3 gave the breakdown of the country or origin of the students).

Table 5

I-2/F-2: Number of questionnaires returned by language (n=97)

Languages	Totals	Percent
Spanish	35	36.08
Japanese	16	16.49
Korean	13	13.40
Portuguese	11	11.34
Chinese	8	8.24
English	14	14. 43

[2] The following codes have been used throughout this chapter to make reference to the question numbers used in the questionnaires: I-13 means question 13 in the Initial questionnaire; F-18 means question 18 in the Final questionnaire; I-17/F-10 means question 17 of the initial questionnaire, which corresponds to question 10 of the final questionnaire.

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Age groups. The students were divided into five age groups because of the small number of participants (see discussion of these groups in Chapter 3). The majority of the students fell between ages 17 and 20 (34.5%), and the second largest group was between 27 and 29 (23.8%). The age of the students will also be used as a dependent variable, to see if it influenced the responses given on the questionnaires.

Table 6

I-5/F-4: Number of students per age groups (n=84).

Group	Category	Number	Percentage
1.	17-20 years	29	34.5
2.	21-23 years	8	9.5
3.	24-26 years	15	17.9
4.	27-29 years	20	23.8
5.	30 and older	12	14.3

Other background factors. The plans the students had for their future after the completion of their ESL courses seemed to be an important variable since it might influence the expectations of the students. Important too was the fact that they had learned other foreign languages besides English or not (cf. discussion in Chapter 2 and Ma, 1993). This is why questions 10 and 13 were asked.

Table 7

I-13/F-6: "Do you plan to go back to your country after you finish your studies in the U.S.?" (n=95)

Number	Totals	Percentage
yes	57	60.00
no	8	8.42
not sure yet	30	31.50

Table 8

I-10: "Have you learned languages other than English?" (n=75)

Number	Totals	Percentage
yes	33	44
no	42	56

The participants were also asked how many NNESTs, if any, they had previously had while learning English. This question was asked since the feelings of the students towards their new NNEST might be different if it had been their first NNEST, or if they were used to having mostly NNESTs already. One can see in the following Figures 4 and 5 that many students had already had NNESTs in their country of origin, while few had had NNESTs in the U.S. This does not seem surprising, but one must remember that it might have been the first semester in the U.S. for some of these students. This means that if a student had just arrived in the U.S. a few days before, he or she did not have many

opportunities to have either NNESTs or NESTs in the U.S. Therefore, Figures 4 and 5 do not take into account the total number of ESL teachers (both NESTs and NNESTs) the students might have had previously. They also do not compare the total number of NNESTs with the total number of NESTs the students had had while learning English (in their countries or in the U.S.). The following figures[3] give the details of the answers.

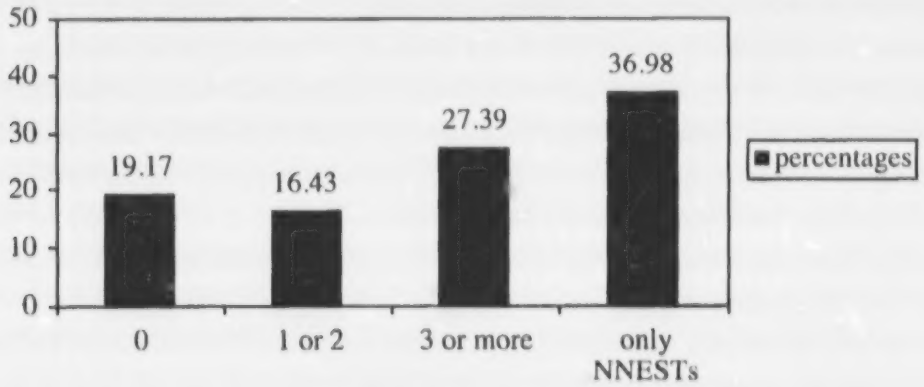

Figure 4. I-8: Number of previous NNESTs in country of origin (n=73).

[3] For better visual representation, figures are used to shows the frequencies. The corresponding tables can be found in Appendix G.

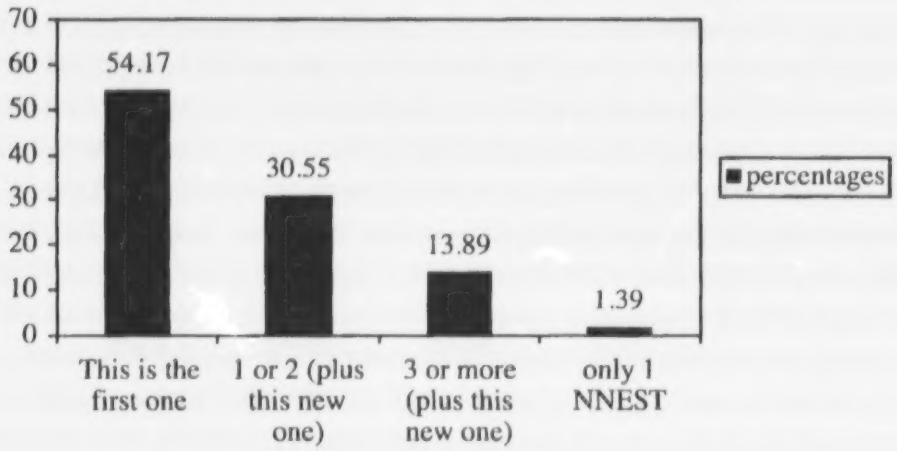

Figure 5. I-9: Number of previous NNESTs in the U.S. (n=72).

Teachers. Four nonnative ESL teachers participated: Mr. J. was from Japan; Ms. S. was from Switzerland; Ms. E. was from Ecuador; and Ms. A. was from Argentina. One teacher was French-speaking, two were Spanish-speaking, and one was Japanese-speaking. It is interesting to notice that only 16.05% of the students spoke the language of their teacher, while 69.14% of the students wrote that they did not know the language of their teacher at all (I-25). This means that few Japanese speakers were in the class of the Japanese teacher, and few Spanish speakers were with the Spanish-speaking teachers.

Feelings and Expectations of the Students at the Beginning of the Semester

In order to find out what the feelings of the students were at the beginning of the semester, the answers to the initial questionnaire and the three sets of interviews (see Chapter 3) were analyzed. As explained earlier, the qualitative reports gathered through

the interviews only served to illustrate or corroborate the quantitative data from the questionnaires. Except for demographic questions, items about feelings and first impressions used a Likert scale format. This particular format allowed the students to give their opinion on a scale from 1 to 5 with the following descriptions for the numbers: **1**—strongly disagree; **2**—disagree; **3**—not sure; **4**—agree; **5**—strongly agree. Using the Likert scale format, eight questions were asked, at the beginning of the questionnaire, regarding the students' opinion of nonnative ESL teachers "in general," that is, all the nonnative teachers the students might have previously had. At the end of the questionnaire, eight more questions were asked, with the same format, regarding the students' new nonnative ESL teacher specifically (their current teacher), according to the following variables, previously discussed in the review of literature (Chapter 2).

- Grammar knowledge of the teachers
- Respect for the nonnative teachers
- Knowledge of the subject taught
- Physical appearance
- English pronunciation
- Authority in the classroom
- Cultural knowledge
- Relationship between students and teachers
- Difficulties of the teachers to understand their students.

These variables were addressed in the form of specific questions in the questionnaires given to the students. In order to obtain a better overall view of the

students' opinions, these questions were grouped into three categories that will be discussed in the following order:

1. Learning from a NNEST
2. Cultural knowledge of the NNESTs
3. Respect for NNEST

Learning from a NNEST. By first looking at the most general questions asked in this initial questionnaire, it seems that most of the answers seemed to be quite positive although there were a few harsh judgements made against the nonnative teachers. Indeed, Figure 6 gives the answers to I-16, which states that "*I can learn English just as well from a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher as I can from a NATIVE English-speaking teacher.*"

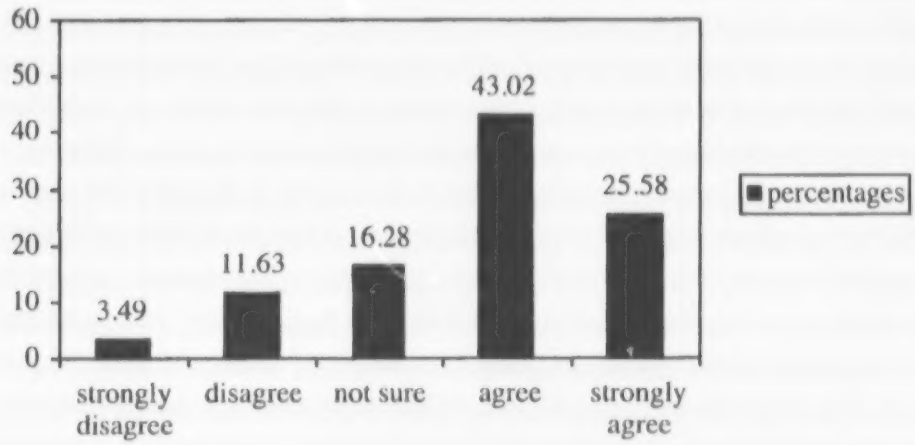

Figure 6. I-16: "*I can learn English just as well from a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher as I can from a NATIVE English-speaking teacher*" (n=86).

The analysis of the answers show that a total of 68.6% of the students agreed or strongly agreed[4] that they could indeed learn English just as well from a NNEST than from a NEST, while only 15.12 % of the students disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. This means that, on the first day of class with a very new nonnative teacher, more than half of the students already had a positive attitude towards their new teacher.

Another very positive answer is revealed in Figure 7. The data shows that 82.14% of the students said that NNESTs had as much authority in the classroom as NESTs (I-18) while only a total of 5.95% disagreed or strongly disagreed. As a means of comparison (see later discussion for more details about that), the results given to the same question in the final questionnaire are also shown here. With this comparison, one can notice that the opinion of the students concerning authority of their NNEST did not change significantly over time. However, caution must be used here since the word "authority" can have different implications for different people (authority as in "able to keep students quiet," authority as in "knowledgeable," etc.). This issue however has not been further researched here since it was only a general question about feelings overall. Figure 7 gives the detailed percentages for the responses to this question[5].

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[4] During the discussions and in order to know if a response was either more positive or more negative, the percentages given as results for number 4 (agree) and 5 (strongly agree) were added together when discussing the results, as well as the percentages given for 1 (strongly disagree) and 2 (disagree). Except when the collapsing would destroy sensitive data, it allows for a more general view of the opinion of the students. The exact numbers of "strongly agree" versus "agree" and "strongly disagree" versus "disagree" can be seen on the Figures and are given in the tables in the Appendix G.

[5] Numeric differences between the percentages can be found in the Tables corresponding to these Figures in Appendix G.

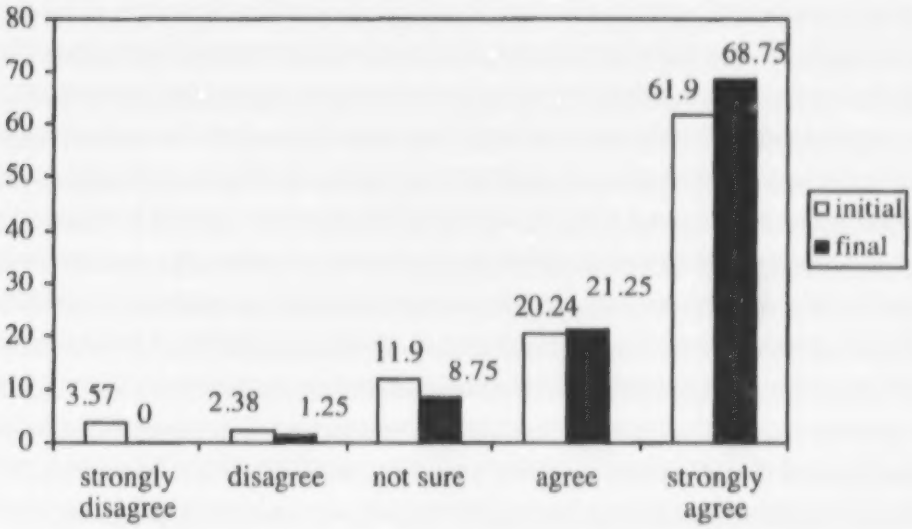

Figure 7. I-18: "*A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher*" (n=84) and F-11 (n=81).

Furthermore, while a total of 73.17% of the students (see Figure 8) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that NNESTs had difficulties understanding and responding to their students (I-22), 79.27% also disagreed or strongly disagreed with the affirmation that it was better not to let NNESTs teach ESL (I-21, Figure 9). These numbers show that "at first sight," on the first day of class, and after having had *some* previous experience with other native and nonnative teachers (see Figures 4 and 5), most students did not have a particularly bad opinion of NNESTs in general. The following tables give all the details of this information.

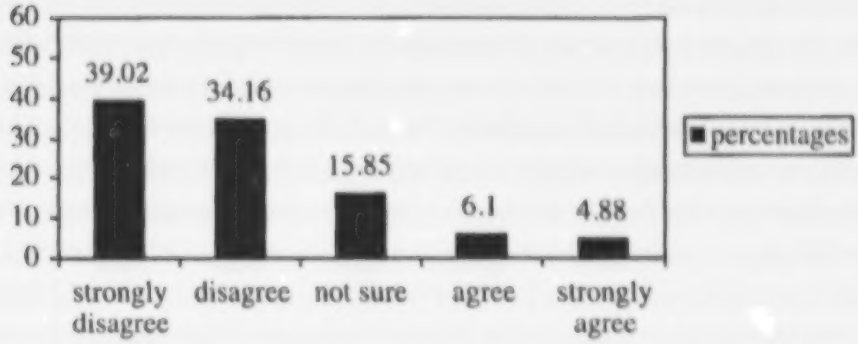

Figure 8. I-22: "*NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions*"(n=82).

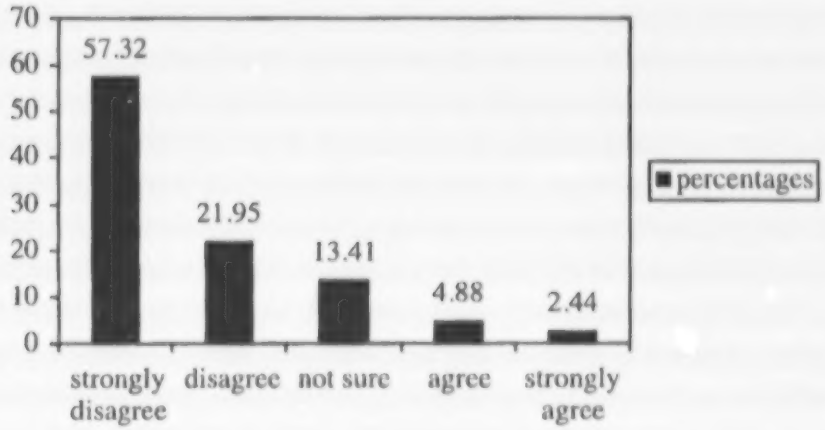

Figure 9. I-21: "*I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language*"(n=82).

Cultural knowledge of the NNESTs. In spite of all the previous good news, if 78.57% of the students agreed or strongly agreed that having a NNEST was a good opportunity to learn about the different cultures of the world (I-19, Figure 10), a fairly

large percentage of 39.02%, did not agree with the statement that NNESTs knew as much about the culture of the United States as native speakers.

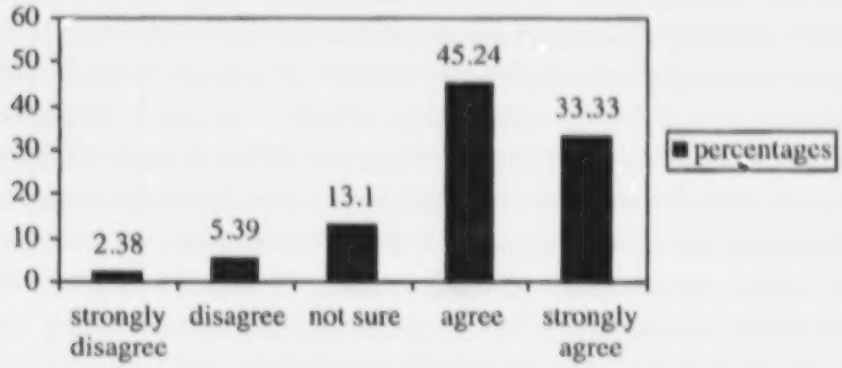

Figure 10. I-19: "*Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures and the world*" (n=84).

At the same time as much as 35.37% responded that they were not sure about the knowledge of culture of the teachers (I-20, Figure 11). These results do not seem surprising. When looking at these numbers, it is important to remember that not all NNESTs came to the U.S. at the same age, and not all of them have spent the same amount of time in the U.S. before teaching ESL. Ms. E., for example, had come to the U.S. at age 14 and therefore went to high-school and college in the U.S. Consequently she could be said to have a very good knowledge of the "high-school and college" culture, compared to the three other teachers who had come at an older age. It could also be valuable to look into what exactly *is* U.S. culture in the eyes of international students, how and when one acquires a knowledge of it, what specific aspects about U.S. culture the students wish to be taught, and how.

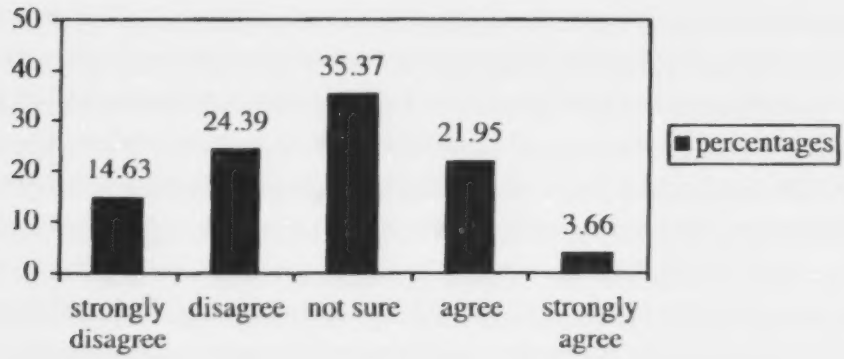

Figure 11. I-20: "*I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers*" (n=82).

When analyzing the answers to I-20 regrouping the students into different categories (age, gender, number of NNESTs in the U.S., etc., as done later in this chapter in detail), it appears that the students who wrote these answers, are also those who said that they did *not* want to return to their country after finishing their ESL studies. To the question, "*Do you plan to go back to your country after you finish your studies in the U.S.?*" (I-13, see Table 8), a comparison of the means given per group (P-value: 0.006) shows that the students who answered *yes* have a mean score of 2.66 (which is close to "disagree). The students who answered *no* gave a mean score of 4.46 (between agree and strongly agree). The students who answered *not sure* had a mean score of 2.38 (close to disagree). This means that the students who wanted to stay in the U.S. after the completion of their ESL studies seem to have felt a need to learn more and faster about U.S. life and culture and therefore were being more demanding in terms of "genuine" knowledge. One could have thought that it would be the opposite, as some comments

made by one student during the interview had indicated. Indeed, Misato[6] said: "At school, I always had Japanese EFL teachers. Then I paid a lot of money to come to the U.S. and learn 'real' English, and now my grammar teacher here is from Japan!" Misato, however, quickly added that she liked her Japanese grammar teacher because she could appreciate and make the most out of his Asian teaching style, while the "Latin" students had a more difficult time accepting and understanding it. She also added that her Japanese teacher had a more systematic and logical approach to teaching them that her other ESL native teachers did not have.

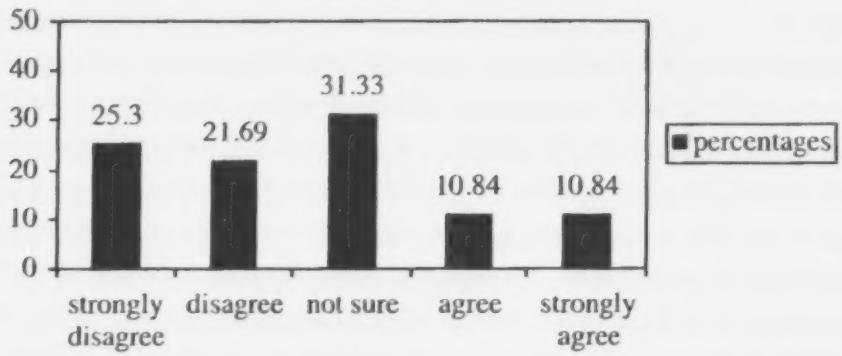

Figure 12. I-36: "*If I could choose a new teacher today, I would do it*" (n=83).

According to the statistics given above, however, it appears rather that the majority of the students who wanted to stay in the U.S. after the completion of their ESL studies felt a need to learn more and faster about U.S. life. The fact that the students who wanted to stay in the U.S. were also the ones who said that they would choose another

[6] All the names of the participating students have been changed. The quotes do not show mistakes the students might have made when speaking.

teacher if they could (I-36, Figure 12) (means: yes: 3.68; no: 2.60; not sure: 2.84; P-value: 0.02) supports this supposition.

Respect for NNESTs. About their current nonnative teachers, the students also had many good and positive things to say. When asked, on the first day of class and without them really knowing their new teacher, if they respected their new teacher *because* he or she was a nonnative speaker, a total of 79.27% of the students responded yes (I-32, Figure 13).

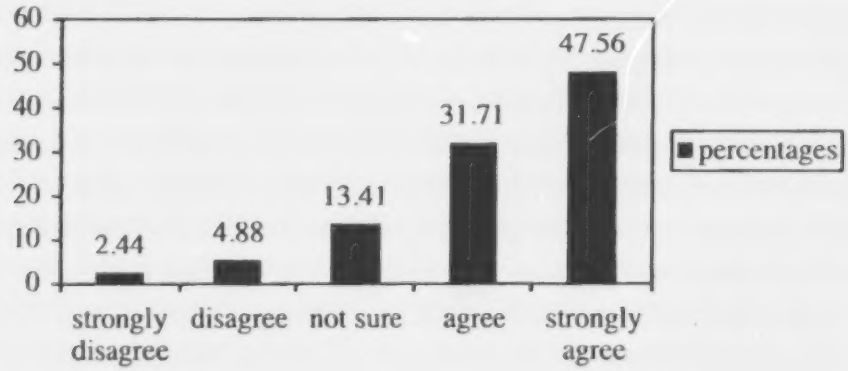

Figure 13. I-32: "*I respect and admire this teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher*" (n=82).

Similarly, when asked if they would recommend this teacher to one of their friends, 56.79% answered that they would, 40.74% said that they were not sure, and only 2.46% said no (I-27, Figure 14).

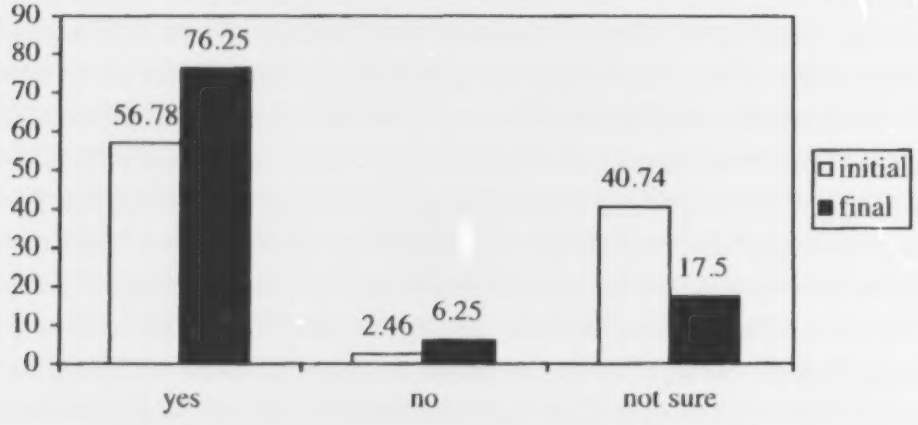

Figure 14. I-27: "*Would you encourage a friend to take a class with THIS NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher*?" (n=82) and F-18: (n=80).

When one thinks about the amount of fatalistic literature regarding NNESTs, reporting on negative attitudes and discriminating hiring procedures, these numbers are astonishingly positive. In fact, it is even more interesting to compare the results of I- 27 (Figure 14) with the results given for the same question on the final questionnaire (F-18) (this will be done later in the chapter in more detail): after having spent 16 weeks with that teacher, an astonishing 76.25% of the students would recommend their NNEST to a friend (an increase of 19.47% from the initial questionnaire), only 17.50% were not sure, and only 6.25% would not (a decrease of 23.24%). In Table 14, it is possible to see the differences between the answers given at the beginning of the semester (initial questionnaire) and those given at the end of the semester (final questionnaire).

Finally, to the statement "*I expect this class to be a positive experience in general*" (I-37, Figure 15), 84.34% of the students agreed or strongly agreed, 12.05% said

that they were not sure yet, and a total of only 3.61% did not agree. Compared with the answers to the same question on the final questionnaire (F-26, Figure 15), one can see that the students in general already expected from the beginning to have a good experience with their new class and indeed had a rather positive experience throughout the semester. (More details are given later in this chapter about the influence time had on the student's opinion, as well as the significance levels of comparisons between the initial and final questionnaires.)

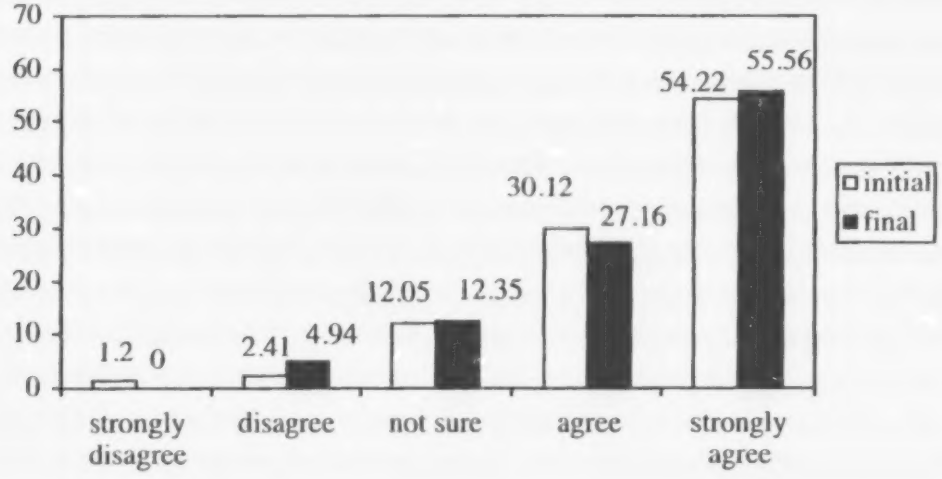

Figure 15. I-37: "*I expect this class to be a positive experience in general*" (n=83) and F-26: *"This class was a positive experience in general"* (n=81).

These results corroborate the positive findings exposed in Figure 6 at the beginning of this chapter concerning the answers to I-16 (*I can learn English just as well from a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher as I can from a NATIVE English-speaking teacher)*. They also show that the attitude of the students toward their NNEST was not as

negative as one could have predicted after reading the literature introduced in Chapter 2, since here, at the beginning of the semester already, a total of 84.34% of the students expect their class with their new NNEST to be a positive experience.

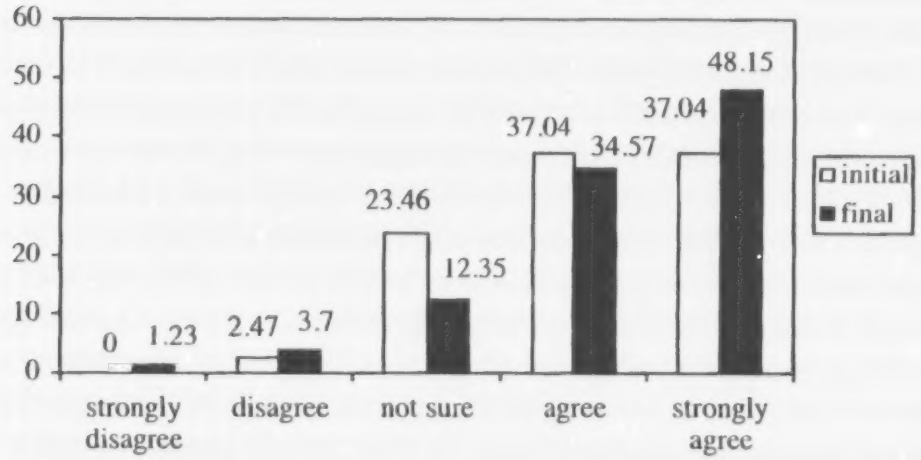

Figure 16. I-30: "*I feel that this teacher will be a good teacher for me*" (n=81) and F-20: "*I feel that this teacher was a good teacher for me*" (n=81).

Likewise, to the statement "*I feel that this teacher will be a good teacher for me*" (I-30, Figure 16), 74.08% of the students agreed or strongly agreed, 23,46% said that they were not sure yet, only 2.47% disagreed, and no one strongly disagreed. The same comparison can be made with the answers given to the same question in the final questionnaire. Figure 16 shows the changes of opinion that occurred during the semester.

These numbers, although representing only a small group of students from one school, should encourage all the NNESTs of this world. Indeed, except for the question about U.S. culture, almost never do the answers given by the students about authority, respect, and knowledge show a particularly strong hostility towards their nonnative teachers as some authors might have suggested (see Review of Literature in Chapter 2). A total of 68.6% of the students said that they could learn English just as well from a NNEST as they could from a NEST, and 79.27% of them did not think that it would be better if NNESTs were not allowed to teach ESL. At the same time, 79.28% expressed admiration and respect for their NNEST, and as many as 84.34% of the students expected their class with a NNEST to be a positive experience in general. The only slightly negative answer given by the students was about cultural knowledge. However, as discussed above, this question needs more investigation.

In conclusion, when looking at the answers to the research question regarding the students' feelings for their NNEST at the beginning of the semester, one can say that these feelings are good and that no strong opposition to NNESTs have yet been expressed. As Vinicius, one of the interviewed students, said, "[Ms. A.] might be a nonnative teacher, but *because* of that she inspires and motivates me, and shows me that I can do it too." Hyesoo added "I don't care that much if the teacher is native or nonnative. I have had good and bad nonnative teachers, but I have also had good and bad native teachers. One thing that I particularly like about nonnative teachers is that they are more understanding of our difficulties here and it is easier to talk with them about personal problems."

Teacher and student variables which influence the students' perceptions of their teachers

Because it seems obvious that a Japanese student would react differently to a Japanese teacher than a Mexican student would, a set of four variables that were judged to have a possible influence on the results was first identified: the specific teacher; the language of the students; the gender of the students; and the age group into which the students fell. These variables were introduced into the analysis of the responses to all the questions of the initial and final questionnaires, using an ANOVA procedure. However, after trying to investigate if there was any interaction between the first language of the students, their age, and their answers to a particular question, it quickly became obvious that there were not enough data to conduct such an analysis. Therefore, because the size of the cells was too small, no measures of significance could be run and the SAS statistics program used to analyze these data simply answered "error" when asked to perform such interactions. Indeed, only 97 questionnaires were gathered and some groups or students were quite small, in particular the language groups (only 13 students were from Korea, 11 from Brazil, and 8 from China). It became therefore impossible to say if the group of males from China answered differently to I-16 than the group of males from Brazil, for example.

Later on, some more dependent variables were added to the analysis when it was believed that they could have had a significant influence on the students' answers: how many NNEST the students had had in their country; how many NNESTs they had previously had in the U.S.; if they had learned another foreign language; and if they

intended to return to their country after the completion of their ESL course. These eight variables will be examined in detail.

As explained in Chapter 3, the significance level of the P-value was set at 0.05 because of the small number of participants. Means were used to identify which groups of students responded the most positively or the most negatively to a question. One must use caution, however, when interpreting the means, since 5 meant "strongly agree" and 1 "strongly disagree," but some questions were positive and others negative. A mean average of 1.23 for example does therefore not automatically mean that the students did not like the teacher but only that they did not agree with a particular statement.

In the statistical analysis of every individual question (General Linear Model procedure), three P-values were given: a "general" one, indicating if one or more student or teacher variables influenced the answers given by the students; the second P-value was of Type I; and the third P-value was of Type III. (The Type I SS (sum of squares) are the SS for the model in the order that it is written. The Type III SS are the SS as if the term (source) was last in the model. This tells how significant the term is after adjusting for all the other terms in the model.) The "general" P-value was looked at first, to see if any variable had significantly influenced to the results of a given question. If so, the type III P-values were then examined in order to determined which variable did influence the answers. The type III P-values are the ones given in the following examination of different variables. The detailed results of the ANOVA analysis by question can be found in Appendix H, but the discussion will now concentrate only on the results, by category, which were significant.

Gender. By simply looking at all the type III p-values given after the statistical analysis of all questions, it can immediately be noted that gender never had a significant influence on the answers given by the students. Therefore, this variable will not be analyzed further.

First language of the students. The goal here was to investigate if the first language of the students would influence their answers to all or some specific questions. Indeed, while reading literature about NNESTs, conducting the interviews and by simply teaching, the researcher had quickly noticed that the first language of the students influenced the way they reacted to NNESTs, and imagined that this variable would affect the way they responded to a few questions.

One can notice, throughout the following discussions, how the Korean students and sometimes the Chinese students seemed to be much more trenchant and critical in their judgements of their teachers than other students were. It is also intriguing to notice that the Japanese, the third Asian group of students, more often have results that show a stronger similarity of opinion with the Latin speakers than with the Chinese or Korean speakers. The reason for this pattern is not readily evident.

Each question will now be examined in detail to see how the variable of the first language of the students influenced their answers. The questions not analyzed here did not have a significant P-value, which means that the given answers were not influenced by the variable of the native language of the students.

I-18: *A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher*. Here, the small P-value (<.0001) shows that the answers given by different language groups are quite significantly

different. The Korean students disagreed with the statement (means: 2.68, see Table 9) significantly more than the other groups, in particular the Brazilian students, who very strongly agreed (mean: 4.9).

Table 9

Means per language group for I-18 (A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher).

Language group	Means
Spanish	4.76
Japanese	4.88
Korean	2.68
Brazilian	4.90
Chinese	4.45
Other languages	4.05

P-value: <.0001

I-19: *Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures and the world.* The P-value of 0.0037 shows that there is a significant difference between the answers of the Koreans who mostly were "not sure" (mean: 3.21) and the other students who mostly agreed (but not strongly) with the statement[7].

I-21: *I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language*. Although quite high, the P-value (0.0326) still indicates that the groups of Chinese (mean: 2.88) and Koreans (mean: 2.13) do not disagree as much with the statement as the groups of Spanish (mean: 1.47) and Brazilians (mean: 1.53) and Japanese (mean: 1.59).

[7] All the missing tables corresponding to the questions discussed here can be found in Appendix I.

I-23: *I feel as comfortable talking about personal problems with NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers as with NATIVE English-speaking teachers*. To this question (P-value: 0.0234), the Japanese students agreed more than the other language groups (mean: 4.81), and in particular, more than the Brazilian students (mean: 3.24).

I-31: *I am not sure yet if this new teacher knows his/her subject very well.* In this case, the Koreans disagreed more strongly (mean: 1.82) than the other groups, in particular the Chinese (mean: 3.39). The P-value is quite low (0.0098) but one must remember that this question might be difficult to understand and to answer: Do I strongly disagree that I am not sure? This means that I am sure about it. Translations in different languages might have made this question sound more positive or more negative. In English, for example, "I am not sure" is rather negative and is a polite way to say, "I don't think so." Another downside of the complexity of this question is the fact that it might have been translated slightly differently in other languages.

I-32: *I respect and admire this new teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher*. A very low P-value of < .0001 indicates that the opinions of the students varied strongly regarding this statement. Again, it is the Koreans whose answers were significantly different (mean: 2.71, see Table 10). This is an outcome worth looking at in detail, since so far, the Korean students and sometimes the Chinese students seemed to have been more trenchant and critical in their judgements of NNESTs than other students have. As mentioned earlier, it is also intriguing to notice that the Japanese, the third Asian group of students, more often have results that show a stronger similarity of opinion with the Latin speakers than with the Chinese or Koreans. The researcher does not understand the reasons for such incongruities in the patterns discovered here.

Table 10

Means per language group for I-32 (I respect and admire this new teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher).

Language group	Means
Spanish	4.46
Japanese	4.47
Korean	2.71
Brazilian	4.20
Chinese	4.55
Other languages	4.16

P-value: <.0001

I-33: *The English pronunciation of my new teacher is good*. When looking at the results for this question (P-value: 0.264), one must remember that one of the NNESTs was from Japan, two from South America, and one from Europe, and the accents of these NNESTs were very varied. It would therefore have been more gratifying to analyze the results per class, but the low number of participants does not allow this kind of analysis (see previous comments about small cells). One can therefore only notice that the Koreans (mean: 3.35) and the Chinese (mean: 3.57) seemed more unsure than the other groups that their teacher had good English pronunciation. The other groups agreed but never strongly.

I-35: *My teacher looks like a typical American person.* As with the previous question, it would have been interesting to analyze the results per class but this proved impossible. It is thus only possible to say that there is a significant difference between the groups, (P-value: 0.0079) and that the Koreans (mean: 2.39) and the Brazilians (mean: 2.09) seemed to judge the appearance of the their teachers more harshly than other

language groups did. The other groups were more "not sure." It is interesting to note these differences since there was no teacher from Korea or Brazil participating in the study. Maybe most of the students from Korea and Brazil were taught by the Japanese teacher, whose features seemed the more "foreign." On the other hand, the fact that most students were "not sure" or slightly disagreed could also indicate that the opinion of the researcher and that of the students differ significantly, regarding what a "typical American person" is. Indeed, for some, the term "American" refers to U.S. citizens but for others (and especially people who are from Latin America), it refers to anybody living in North, Central, and South America. It would have been interesting to ask first: What *is* a "typical American"?

I-36: *If I could choose a new teacher today, I would do it*. The low P-value given here (0.0081) confirms that the opinions of different language groups were significantly different. By looking at the means, one can see that this time, the Chinese (mean: 4.20) wanted to have a different teacher much more than the Brazilians (mean: 2.11), and the Spanish (mean: 2.55). The other groups were "not sure." If one looks at Figure 12 discussed earlier, one can see that indeed, 31.33% of all the students (without knowing which language group) said that they were not sure, which is one of the highest "not sure" results of any analyzed question here. It is also one of the questions that divided the students' opinion the most, with a total of 21.78% of the students agreeing or strongly agreeing to the statement, while 46.99% disagreed or strongly disagreed. The probable causes for this division among the students can be multiple, one being that Asian students tend to give harsher judgements, while the Latin students are more accepting and forgiving. This, however, contradicts the usual tendency to say that Asians are more

reserved and shy when making judgements. Here too, reasons for this division about students might have been found in the analysis of the answers per language group but also per teacher. It could have been that, since the Chinese group is quite small, most of these students were with one teacher. In this regard, caution must be used when looking at these results since the Spanish group, which is the largest group of students, is compared with the Chinese group, which is the smallest.

I-37: *I expect this class to be a positive experience in general*. The P-value of 0.0031 and the means again show that the Chinese (mean: 3.11) and the Koreans (mean: 4.02) agreed far less with this statement than the Spanish (mean: 4.59), the Japanese (mean: 4.59), and the Brazilians (mean: 4. 37). As for the question analyzed above, these discrepancies might be the result of one individual teacher. However, it still corroborates with the usual pattern of "acceptance" or "rejection" of NNESTs in general seen throughout this analysis.

The patterns showed here have clearly demonstrated that it is important to recognize that the first language of the students is a significant and crucial variable. While it is regrettable that no deeper analysis be possible here, the results exposed in the above discussion show that more research must be done in this area, not only with more participating students but also with more NNESTs from different countries, as the following discussion will reveal.

Differences between the teachers[8]. Before starting the discussion, it is important to be reminded that there were four teachers participating in this study: Mr. J. was from Japan; Ms. S was from Switzerland (French speaking); Ms. E. was from Ecuador; and

[8] The complete tables corresponding to these questions can be found in Appendix I.

Ms. A. was from Argentina. The students, however, did not respond much differently depending on their teacher, except on three particular questions about respect, accent, and appearance. The same analysis as above was done, taking every question individually and looking at how the different teachers influenced the responses given by the students. Since no further calculation could be done looking both at the differences between teachers and the differences of opinion between language groups, one can only "mentally" compare the previous tables, figures, and comments with the following examination of this variable and its influence on the students' answers.

I-32: *I respect and admire this teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher* (see Table 10 and Figure 13). The P-value of 0.0057 indicates that students in different classes differed in their answers. Indeed, there is a small difference between the students of Ms. S. (mean: 3.71) and Mr. J. (mean: 3.93), who seemed a little more unsure in their opinion than the students of Ms. E. (mean: 4.60) and Ms. A. (mean: 4.13), who seemed to really agree with the statement. Looking at Table 10, it would be easy to think that most Korean students, the ones who disagreed the most, were with either Ms. S. or Mr. J. However, there might be other explanations here that need more investigation with larger groups of participants. Since the majority of the students are from Latin America, it could be logical that they admire the most the two teachers who are from Latin America too and who have succeeded in learning English so well that they became teachers. These two teachers from Latin America must have been the best role models for the many Spanish-speaking students. Again, it would have been interesting to verify if indeed, it was the Spanish-speakers who said that they admired Ms. E. and Ms. A. the most.

I-33: *The English pronunciation of my new teacher is good.* For this question, it is not surprising to find out that there are strong differences of accents between the four teachers, in particular between Mr. J. and the three other teachers (see Table 11) (P-value: < .0001). Indeed, from a totally subjective point of view, although one cannot define what a "strong" accent is, it was easy to hear that Mr. J. had the strongest accent of the four participating NNESTs while Ms. S. and Ms. E. had almost no accent. Ms. A.'s was not very strong either.

Table 11

Means per teacher for I-33 (The English pronunciation of my new teacher is good).

Teacher	Means
Mr. J.	2.97
Ms. S.	4.44
Ms. E.	4.29
Ms. A.	4.03

P-value: <.0001

I-35: *My teacher looks like a typical American person.* Here again, there is a strong difference between teachers (P-value: < .0001) and Mr. J. and Ms. S. make the difference (see Table 12). For more details about this specific question, it is interesting to read the previous discussion about how the different language groups answered it (see also Appendix H). As explained above, it was not possible to combine the two analyses because of the low number of participants, but a look at individual numbers can give a lot of information.

Table 12

Means per teacher for I-35 (My teacher looks like a typical American person).

Teacher	Means
Mr. J.	1.33
Ms. S.	3.51
Ms. E.	2.97
Ms. A.	3.39

P-value: <.0001

Age differences of the students. (see Table 6 at the beginning of the chapter) Probably because of the small number of participants, age differences seem to influence significantly the answers of the students for only two questions. The first one is I-21 and the second one I-35 (see Appendix H).

For I-21 (*I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language)*, the P-value of 0.0125 shows that there is a significant difference between the answers of the students of the age group number 4 (between 27 and 29) and that of age group number 5 (30 years old and after). While the students in age groups 1, 2, and 3 disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement, group 4 was the most unsure (mean: 2.70) and group 5 disagreed the most strongly (mean: 1.39). No explanation can be offered other than the older the students are, the stronger their opinion seems to be.

The age of the students also made a difference in I-35 (*My teacher looks like a typical American person*). The P-value of 0.0398 (P-value about the age) indicates that there is a difference between the answers of group 5 (30 and above) (mean: 3.58) who seemed to agree the most and those of the other groups who rather disagreed (group 4

(27-29) (mean: 2.41) disagreed the most) or were not sure. However, the P-value is quite high, so caution must be used when seeing these results as very significant (see also Table 12 and discussion).

Learning of other languages and number of previous NNESTs in the U.S. These two variables never made a significant difference in the answers given by different groups. It had been suggested before (see Review of Literature, Chapter 2, and Ma, 1993) that students who had previously learned other languages might be less opposed to NNESTs than other students because of the higher probability that they had NNESTs before and the consequent exposure to cultures others than their own. However in this case, and maybe because of the small number of participants, this variable does not make the students more or less accepting of their NNESTs in general.

As for the number of previous NNESTs the students had while learning English in the U.S., the fact that it does not make any difference in the way different groups might have answered can be explained by the fact already discussed above—there is no indication if the students were in the U.S. for their first, second, or third semesters. Asking this question would have been relevant if another question had been asked too: What is the number of NNESTs that have taught you in the U.S. compared to the number of NESTs?

Number of previous NNESTs in country of origin. While looking at the results given by the statistical analysis of the data, it appeared that the number of previous NNESTs the students had while learning English in their own country made a small difference in one of the answers (P-value: 0.0588). This seemed logical since the more NNESTs students might have had before, the more accepting or rejecting they might be

of their new NNEST, depending on their previous experiences. When asked "*I am not sure yet if this new teacher knows his/her subject very well?"* (I-31), students who had had no previous NNESTs in their country answered the most positively (a low means of 1.88 shows that these students disagreed with the statement, which is a positive thing for NNESTs) and students who had had two NNESTs in their country answered the most negatively (means: 3.22). However, as the P-value shows, the difference is not big and the size of the groups probably accounts for this lack of better details.

Intent to return to country of origin (see Table 8 at the beginning of the chapter and corresponding tables in Appendix I). This variable seemed to influence the answers to three questions: I- 20, I-32, and I-36. As discussed previously (after Figure 11), the students who wanted to stay in the U.S. responded the least favorably (means: 4.46) to the question "*I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers*" (I-20, P-value: 0.0006). Those who were not sure (means: 2.38) or did *not* want to stay in the U.S. (means: 2.66) responded more positively to this question. These results might indicate a bigger need of those who would go back to their country to have a more authentic and faster exposure to U.S. culture.

To the comment "*I respect and admire this teacher because he or she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher*," (I-32, P-value: 0.0505), the students who wanted to stay in the U.S. were more unsure in their opinion (means: 3.41) than the students who wanted to leave the country (means: 4.18). The latter obviously respected and admired their teacher more. (See Figure 13 and Table 10 and their related discussions for more information about this question).

Finally, to the question "*If I could choose a new teacher today, I would do it*" (I-36, see Figure 12), the students who wanted to go back to their country agreed to the question (means: 3.68) much more than the students who wanted to stay (means: 2.60) or were not sure (means: 2.84). This significant difference is also revealed by a P-value of 0.0237. As for the two previous questions, these numbers show that the students who will return to their countries have much higher expectations than the students who want to stay or are not sure yet. Unfortunately, as one can see in Table 8, 60, 00% of the students had planned to go back while only 8.42% wanted to stay in the U.S. The rest of the students were not sure, but these numbers still show that a majority of the students wanted to go back home after the completion of their ESL studies.

In conclusion, one can see that some variables made a difference while others did not. The first language of the students as well as individual differences between teachers did influence the way the students answered the questionnaires. Gender, age differences, intents to return to their country of origin and number of previous NNESTs did not influence the students' opinion remarkably, and more research must be conducted to confirm or contradict these results.

The effects of time and exposure on the students' opinions[9]

The intent in this section is to look at the differences that exist between the initial and the final questionnaires in order to investigate if time and exposure to a NNEST would change the students' opinion of their teacher. A first comparison of the t-values of

[9] As previously explained, tables corresponding to the following figures can be found in Appendix G. These show the differences in percentages between the results of the initial and final questionnaires.

both questionnaires of all the students *as a group* did not show that time has an effect except for one question: I-31/F-21 (p-value of <.0001). In this case, however, these strong differences are due to the fact that one question was asked in a negative way while the other in a positive way. The changes are therefore completely insignificant since if the opinion of the students did *not* change, the P-value had to be very low. Figure 17 clearly demonstrates this unfortunate mistake. However, if one wants to invert one set of answers to make them both positive, one would find that the answers did in fact change positively for the NNEST.

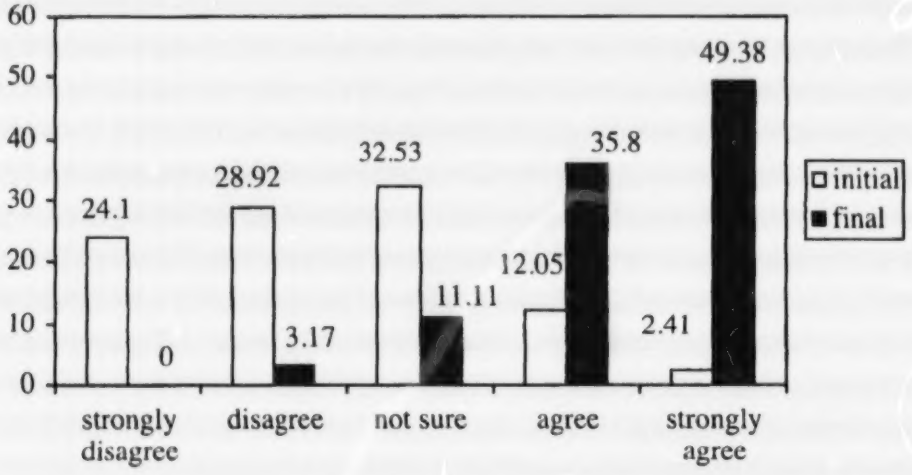

Figure 17. I-31: "*I am not sure yet if this new teacher knows his/her subject very well*" (n=83) and F-21 "*I think this teacher knew his/her subject very well*" (n=81).

Figure 18 shows the changes that took place during the semester with the *inverted* results to I-31. The P-value for these inverted results has not been calculated, however, since the mistake was discovered too late, after the statistical analysis had taken place.

Consequently, one can therefore only rely on the visual graph to see the changes that took place during the semester.

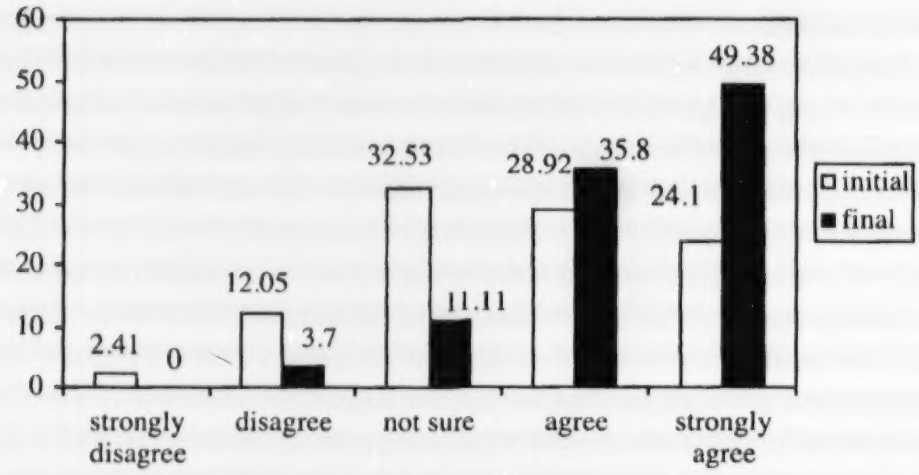

Figure 18. Inverted I-31: "*I **THINK** this new teacher knows his/her subject very well*" (n=83) and F-21 "*I think this teacher knew his/her subject very well*" (n=84).

Two other questions (I-20/F-13 (P-value: 0.0357) and I-34/F-24 (P-value: 0.0315)) seem significant but are not really because of the small number of participants. They are however interesting to look at since the following figures can give a better visual idea than numbers, of the changes that took place. Figure 19 shows a change in the opinion of the students throughout the semester about I-20/F-13 (*I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers*): at the end of the semester, an additional 11.62% of the students strongly disagreed about the statement.

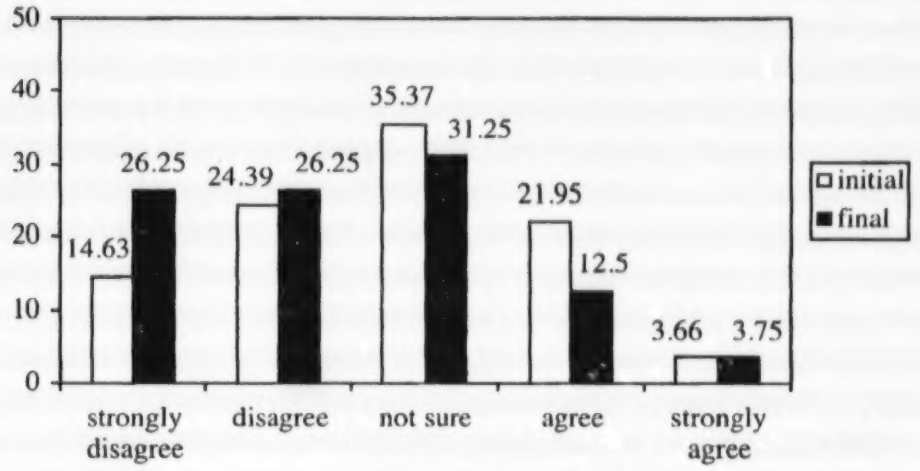

Figure 19. I-20: "*I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers*" (n=82) and F-13: (n=80).

This confirms that questions about culture are complex and should be explored more deeply, as it would be interesting to study what exactly made the students change their mind. Another evidence that the question of culture is complex is the fact that both at the beginning and at the end of the semester, the students themselves seemed unsure and obviously did not know how to answer the question. It is also a positive thing to notice that only 3.66% and 3.75% of the students strongly agreed to the statement and that overall, less students agreed to it at the end of the semester.

The second noticeable question here concerns the grammar knowledge of the teacher. It appears (see Figure 20) that both at the beginning and the end of the semester, most students thought that their teacher knew grammar. While some where more unsure at the beginning, more students strongly agreed at the end, with an increase of 15.68% of

strongly agreeing students. This is a consequential and positive fact since three of the four NNESTs participating in the study were actually grammar teachers.

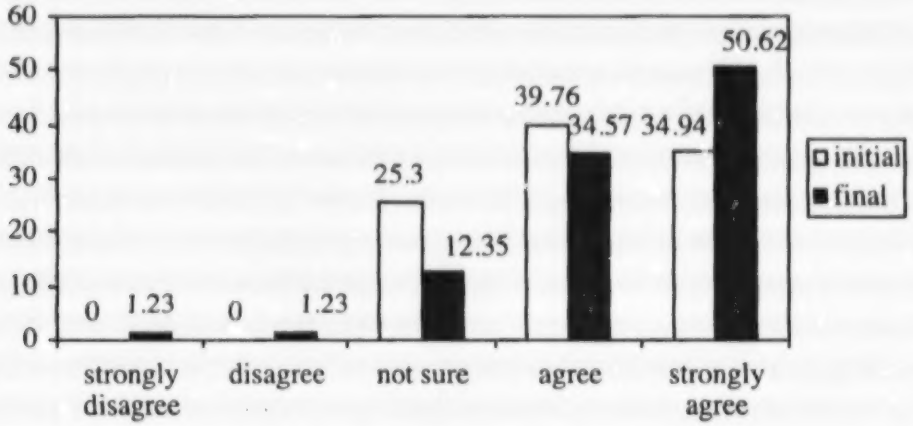

Figure 20. I-34: "*My teacher seems to know grammar very well*" (n=83) and F-24: "*My teacher knows grammar very well*" (n=81).

The very low number of students who disagreed or strongly disagreed confirms what Nonna said during her second interview: "Sometimes at the beginning I thought that I didn't want Ms. E. to be my (grammar) teacher because I believed she would not know as much as native speakers. But I remembered that to be a teacher in this school, you must have the required qualifications and the appropriate knowledge to be able to teach us. Then I stopped worrying." Interestingly, Nonna's opinion changed a little during the semester and on her third interview, she said "Now, looking back, I wish I had had a native teacher because I think I would have learned more." Haru, another student, made another interesting comment: " From the beginning, I noticed a difference between native and nonnative teachers. Both make mistakes, but it is not the same mistakes. And when I

have a question about grammar, nonnatives almost always know the answer when native teachers don't."

Finally, it must be remembered that the choices of the participants in this study were in a way forced when they answered the questionnaires since these were written using a multiple-choice format. The comments made by the students during the interviews show that their opinion is much more complex than statistics can ever indicate, as the following comments, both good and bad, show.

Vinicius (about Ms. A.): "I really like my teacher and am learning a lot from her, but I sometimes feel that she lacks self-confidence and is scared to make mistakes."

Misato: "It depends on the class that nonnatives teach. For grammar, most nonnative teachers are better than native teachers are. For listening/speaking classes, however, it's better to have native speakers, since they don't have accents, except regional accents."

Nonna: "Most nonnative teachers are more prepared, serious, and diligent while teaching."

Haru: "I think I can't see very well the differences between native and nonnative teachers because of my low level of proficiency. So I don't care who is teaching as long as I like the teacher and learn a lot."

Hyesoo: "With a native teacher, we learn more information, they don't just know what they teach but also everything else."

Alberto, a student interviewed during the parallel study that took place about students' opinion of their native teacher (see previous discussion in Chapter 3): "I don't think having a native teacher is better. They often use it in a negative way and say 'It's

the American way.' How can we have a discussion then, and how can we win? Sometimes I feel that I am right but my (native) teacher always says that Americans do it like that and no discussion is possible. But who are the Americans? One person with one opinion?"

Hyesoo: "The differences between native and nonnative teachers? It is like oil and water. They are both good in different ways. I would always choose a good nonnative teacher over a bad native teacher!"

It is now possible to see that few statistically significant changes have occurred during the semester in the opinion of the students. However, the general idea most students had of their teachers was not bad to start with. While the responses given and analyzed in this chapter interestingly seem to disapprove what was said against NNESTs in the literature previously reviewed in Chapter 2, they also show a need to further study the influence of some variables such as the language, age, and gender of the students, as well as the accent, grammar knowledge, and cultural knowledge of the teachers. Indeed, despite these good results and the results given here, it is important to remember the limitations of this study and the problems encountered while the research took place. The following chapter will discuss these limitations and give suggestions for further research concerning the students' opinions of their NNESTs.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion

The increasing number of ESL teachers whose native language is not English has recently occasioned much to be written about the inadequacy of such educators. To the author of this thesis, being herself a nonnative speaker of English teaching ESL, it soon became obvious that the nonnative English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) issue was an important one to investigate. Much research had already been done with nonnative teachers themselves, and how they feel when teaching ESL or EFL. From the Review of Literature of Chapter 2 as well as information gathered from job offer ads, the general feeling appeared to be that both students and school administrators do not like NNESTs because of their many "deficiencies" and prefer native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) who they feel better represent the perfect ESL or EFL teacher. These conclusions, however, seem to have ignored the opinions of the students, who are, after all, the ones being taught. Therefore, it seemed worthwhile to investigate directly the opinions of the students taught by NNESTs before any hasty judgements about the "deficiencies" of the NNESTs could be made.

A study with this purpose thus took place during fall semester 2000 at the English Language Center (ELC), an intensive English school attached to Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah. Eighty-three international students were asked for their opinions about four nonnative English-speaking ESL teachers. Two questionnaires, one given at the beginning of the semester, and the other at the end, as well as three sets of interviews with selected students, were the instruments used to gather the data.

At the end of the semester during which the study took place, the analysis of these four NNESTs' students' responses showed that, in that school and at that time, there did not exist any strong animosity against the four nonnative teachers. Now, by looking specifically at the answers given to the three research questions, one can see that some results are precise and informative while others still remain unclear or incomplete for different reasons explained later.

1. What kind of feelings and expectations do the students have at the beginning of the semester, when taught by NNESTs?

To this question, the answers are clear and statistically reliable. Most students said that they were fine with NNESTs in general and no strong negative feelings were expressed there. Some students also remarked that they would prefer to have a NEST but saw the advantages of having a NNEST—better knowledge of grammar, deeper care about the students, and increased opportunity to learn about other cultures. A total of 68.6% of the students said that they could learn English just as well from a NNEST as they could from a NEST, and 79.27% of them did not think that it would be better if NNESTs were not allowed to teach ESL. At the same time, 79.28% expressed admiration and respect for their NNEST, and as many as 84.34% of the students expected their class with a NNEST to be a positive experience in general. Some students also verbally stated that NNESTs were good role models for them. The only important deficiency expressed by the students was in the knowledge of NNESTs of American culture where 35.7% of the students said that they were not sure about the cultural knowledge of their nonnative teacher. (For additional details, see Chapter 4).

2. *What teacher and student variables influenced the students' perceptions of their teachers at the beginning of the semester?*

When looking at how students from different language groups answered individually, it was interesting to notice that the Korean and Chinese students had a tendency to express negative feelings toward their NNESTs more frequently than other groups of students. Native language or culture, therefore, seemed to be a factor that heavily influenced the way students perceived their teacher, both at the beginning and at the end of the semester. In fact, had the language groups been larger, the importance of this variable might have appeared even more strongly. On the other hand, variables such as students' age, gender, and future plans, did not influence the answers, at least not enough to show a statistically significant influence. Similarly, when a statistical analysis was done to see if students perceived individual NNESTs differently, very little information was revealed, with only two exceptions—the students noticed the strong accent of one of the teachers and they seemed to admire the Spanish-speaking teachers more than the two others.

3. *How do the variables of time and exposure to NNESTs influence the students' perceptions of their teachers?*

The variables of time and exposure did not seem to make much difference, which may be due to several reasons. First, the participating students already had a positive opinion of their teacher at the beginning of the semester. For example, the answers to the questions "I expect this class to be a positive experience" were already very positive at the beginning of the semester and showed only a very slight (but still positive) increase with their answers to "*This class was a positive experience*." Second, the students'

opinion did seem to change a little during the semester, but not enough to be statistically significant because of the small number of participants. By looking at some figures, however, one can see that there was an overall positive change in the opinion of the students. In particular, the students expressed a stronger trust in the teaching abilities and the cultural and grammatical knowledge of their teacher at the end of the semester than at the beginning. There was also a positive shift in the way students saw their nonnative teachers. Finally, the effects of time and exposure were most strongly noticeable in the answers given to the following question: *Would you encourage a friend to take a class with THIS NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher?* To this question, while already 56.78% of the students had answered yes at the beginning of the semester, as much as 76.25% of them answered yes at the end.

Considering the above findings, both positive and negative, one can question what they actually signify for ESL native and nonnative teachers, for Intensive English Programs administrators, for their students, for the field of applied linguistics, as well as for TESOL MA programs. Such implications, along with some recommendations, are considered next.

Implications and recommendations

The first and most important observation is that the issues discussed throughout this thesis are very complex. Some linguists and teachers have tried to define what a native speaker of a language is, for example, or who is better at teaching what. The above results seem quite positive in general. However, as seen in Chapters 1 and 2, individual nonnative ESL and EFL teachers and future teachers often feel insecure, "discarded," and

underestimated by both students and others in the profession. At the same time, school administrators sometimes feel unsure of whom to hire and why. Consequently, at the end of this thesis, and while not intending to answer all questions, the researcher would like to make a few suggestions for everyone involved—the nonnative teachers, school administrators, TESOL program teachers and students, and just everyone who is involved in the TESOL profession.

Recommendations for nonnative teachers and school administrators. While the research done here investigated only the feelings of ESL students taught by nonnative English speakers, a situation still rather uncommon in the United States, one must remember that these circumstances are much more frequent in EFL settings. At the same time, many nonnative speakers of French or Arabic, for example, teach French or Arabic in U.S. high schools and universities and elsewhere, a situation quite well accepted by all in the profession. It consequently should seem irrational to scrutinize the nonnative English speaking ESL teacher more than other language teachers. The only explanation—but not excuse—the researcher can find for this injustice is that English is not just any language but holds an exceptional standing in our world today. Consequently, if such scrutiny must take place, several elements other than the "nativeness" of a person should be taken into consideration when a nonnative English-speaker is thinking about becoming and ESL teacher, or when a school administrator is trying to find the best ESL teacher to hire.

- It is important, for example, to remember that this is not a competition but a profession. The ultimate goal of all concerned should be focused on what is best for the language students. This is why more research must be done regarding the competence (and incompetence) of both native and nonnative teachers, as well as the

feelings and expectations of the students in all settings, in order to determine who can teach what, when, and the best.

- While it is too radical to declare that nonnative teachers can not be good teachers, it is also absurd to argue that they are better than native teachers are. It is therefore necessary for both the school administrators and the future teachers themselves to investigate thoroughly who will be the best teacher in every individual situation. Indeed, different teachers are needed for different tasks, such as teaching an Arabic conversation class for children in France, or an ESL adult writing class in the U.S.
- Only high-quality teachers should be hired. In order to be able to define who is the best teacher in every situation, attention must be paid to different areas, such as the work experience of the applicants, their diplomas, letters of references, as well as students' evaluations. To complement these verifications, it is a good idea to give the future teachers (especially those who do not have much previous experience) a chance to give a teaching demonstration in order to examine their accent, personality, enthusiasm, and teaching philosophy.
- In the end, one must realize that everyone learns by making mistakes. Similarly, having faith that everyone can become a valuable asset to a school if given the chance is, as the research presented here showed, often not a useless act.
- One must also remember that a majority of the ESL and EFL students will go back to their country and therefore interact with other nonnative speakers of English or native speakers of other kinds of English—Australian, British, etc. If the students stay in the U.S., it is often to study at English-speaking universities. There, many faculty members, such as math professors or history teachers, will not be native English-

speakers either. It is therefore a great idea to familiarize the students with different kinds of accents from the beginning and to explain to them at length that they do need to learn more than the Southeastern Manhattan American English, for example.

- Once a teacher has been selected, it is a good idea to organize collaborative workshops or some kind of mentoring program, for both the native and the nonnative teachers. These would further and emphasize the notion that both groups of teachers should learn from one another. It would also inspire the thought that elements such as experience, personality, enthusiasm, and teaching styles influence the making of a good teacher.
- Once a nonnative teacher has been hired, other teachers, as well as school administrators, should defend and support this teacher and help him or her with problems instead of blaming the teacher in front of students or other teachers. Indeed, the students of nonnative teachers will probably be much more accepting of their teacher is they see that other people view him or her as a positive asset to the school.

Recommendations for teachers and students in TESOL programs.

- As noted above, TESOL programs should work hard to attract high-quality students with strong goals and motivation. Looking at high TOEFL or GRE scores is not enough or not a reliable way to discern who can become a good teacher.
- In specific classes or all throughout the program there should be more emphasis placed on the differences, qualities, and challenges, of both native and nonnative. From the beginning, student teachers should learn how to work in pairs (native speaker with a nonnative speaker) in order to learn efficient ways to collaborate and adjust for each other's difficulties and qualities.

- Teachers could also quickly define specific problems that individual NNESTs might have and help them one at a time (pronunciation, writing, etc.). However, it has been mentioned (personal interview, Elza Magalhães, April 10, 2002) that some students feel uncomfortable and lose their self-confidence when singled out for individual reasons related to their nonnativeness. It is consequently important to work tactfully and to make all students aware that pointing out the improvements that need to be made is not a criticism. Identifying what native English speaking student teachers could improve too may help ease out these feelings of injustice.
- Teachers and program administrators must also verify that NNEST student teachers have the same opportunities for internships, student teaching, and work within the program as NEST student teachers. Indeed, some students (personal interview, Angela Maria Lopez, April 11, 2002) have complained that the ESL school attached to their MATESOL program offered internships only to NESTs.
- Other recommendations were given by Kamhi-Stein in her articles "Preparing Nonnative Professionals in TESOL" (1999) and "Adapting U.S.-based TESOL Teacher Education to Meet the Needs of Nonnative English Speakers" (2000). A summary of these recommendations can also be found in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

Implications and recommendations for the TESOL profession.

- As mentioned in Chapter 2, the TESOL association published a statement which emphasized the need for a "minimal language proficiency standards that may be applied equally to all ESOL teachers without reference to the nativeness of their English" (1992, p. 23). Such an ideal test would be given to both native and nonnative future teachers. It would provide information about the grammar knowledge, writing

abilities, and listening comprehension of all teachers. It would also verify the knowledge of the culture or cultures associated with the language being taught, the pronunciation of all teachers in that language, as well as personal teaching theories, reasons for teaching, and motivation.

- Given the complexity of the issues, it must be remembered that there is a definite need for less discrimination and fewer rapid judgements about the "obvious" qualities of one group or another (native speakers or nonnative speakers). As the TESOL association acknowledged: "The Executive Board and the Officers of TESOL shall make every effort to prevent such discrimination in the employment support structures operated by TESOL and its own practices." If such discrimination still exists, however, it is every individual's responsibility to create a work place free of prejudices.
- Finally, more research must be done at all levels of the profession. Studies such as the one done here are important but also have limitations. For this reason, the more similar research takes place, the more information and accurate feedback of what everyone involved in the profession needs will be found.

The researcher would like to discuss now some of the limitations of her study, which may have influenced the results presented in the previous chapters.

Limitations

The first and major limitation is the narrow range of ESL learners represented by the subjects of this study. The findings discussed here and in Chapter 4 represent the opinion of only a small number of students about a small number of teachers (83 students

and four NNESTs). These participants also all came from only one school, were only adults, and were teaching or studying at only three different levels of proficiency. At the same time, one must remember the poor representation of some language groups (especially the Chinese and the "other languages" groups) that had only a few speakers in the subject pool compared with others (Spanish, in particular), which were more considerable (see discussion in Chapter 3). The results of these limitations were that not all the students were able to receive a translation of the questionnaires in their own language—about 10% of them spoke a language that was impracticable to translate. Consequently, it can not be declared that the results reported here are representative of all ESL students about all NNESTs.

Another consequence of the small number of participants in this study is that no complex statistical analysis could be performed with the collected data. Certain inferential statistics could not be used, and for those inferential calculations that were done, achieving a level of acceptable statistical significance was nearly impossible.

Another limitation was the fact that only four nonnative teachers participated, who were quite similar in their English proficiency, training, and teaching experiences. Ideally, teachers with different proficiency levels in English, teaching experience, and cultural backgrounds would have been included in the study. Had this been the case, variables such as the accent or the appearance of the nonnative teachers could have been studied more precisely.

Furthermore, the range of language skills taught by these NNESTs was restricted and classes dealing with different language skills were not all included either since the participating NNESTs taught Listening/Speaking and Grammar classes, but no Writing or

Reading classes. Interestingly, the listening/speaking and grammar skills are what represent the typical illustration of the argumentation of which kind of teacher is the best to teach which skills. Indeed, it is very common to read that NNESTs are the best grammar teachers and NESTs, the best listening/speaking/pronunciation teachers.

A final but certainly major limitation is the fact that the researcher was one of the four teachers who participated in the study. Although precautionary measures had been taken to maintain the anonymity of all participants, the identity of the researcher might have been inadvertently revealed as the other NNESTs gave the questionnaires to their students and asked for their participation. At the same time, the fact that the researcher participated in her own study prevented her from interviewing students from her own two classes, one of which was the only level-four participating class. Since the researcher was a nonnative teacher herself, it might also have prevented the interviewed students in the other classes from expressing sincerely what they thought about nonnative teachers in general. To prevent the occurrence of such limitations, some suggestions are in the next section.

Suggestions for further research

Although not considered a real problem when this study took place, the first and most obvious suggestion for further research is to verify the accuracy of the translated questionnaires. Indeed, while careful revisions and back translations had already been done before the questionnaires were used, a few errors were found later and more might be found. It was also easier for the researcher to verify the Spanish and Portuguese questionnaires than to verify the ones in other languages.

Also, as mentioned above, in order for more complex statistical analysis to be run and more statistically significant different results to be revealed, it would be of crucial importance to have more participants (both students and teachers) for a similar study in the future. Equally important would be to replicate it at different ESL and EFL institutions, with different native languages and in different setting (intensive English program vs. university, etc.). Similarly, experience shows that it would be consequential to investigate the influence of the levels of proficiency of the students, to verify if the accent of the teachers, for example, is perceived differently by students at different levels. Indeed, the researcher has noticed that ESL students of even advanced levels of proficiency are not able to recognize that she is not a native speaker of English. Being Caucasian, she could easily "fool" her students into believing that she is a U.S. citizen and English native speaker, making them more (or less?) accepting of her.

At the same time, if a further study could involve more nonnative teachers, the level of proficiency, their accent, as well as of their country should be included as variables. It would certainly be revealing to analyze these variables' influence on how individual questions were answered.

As mentioned earlier, the accuracy of the results could also be improved by translating the questionnaires into all the languages spoken by the participating students so that students of all levels of proficiency might be included in the study. Thus, all the students would have an equal chance of understanding the questions thoroughly. At the same time, if a larger study is undertaken, it might be interesting to include native-speaking teachers and to translate and use the native questionnaires in order to compare the results found from both groups of teachers, natives and nonnatives. This could allow a

deeper analysis of individual characteristics of the teachers to verify if negative opinions expressed about some teachers are the results of personality, teaching differences, or unmistakably the results of the teachers being nonnative speakers of English.

Finally, in a replication of this research or as smaller and more focused studies, it might be gratifying to include a question aimed at clarifying the participants' definitions of what culture is, and more specifically, what the words "American culture" represent for the students. Similarly, a question about what a "native English speaker" is could convey much information and bring more knowledge about whom the students see as NNESTs or NESTs. In such a study, one could ask this question to both nonnative students and English speakers. Then, it would be possible to compare what the "native speakers" say about themselves with what speakers of other language groups might express.

Conclusion

To end and show that the issues discussed in this thesis are still alive and well, the researcher would like to share one recent e-mail and its reply that were found on the electronic TESL-L discussion board[10].

> Subject: Re: teaching ESL in the US by a non-native teacher
>
> Giovanna asked how we would feel being taught EFL by a non-native teacher. Sadly, as someone who was taught French by English teachers (some good, some bad) in school and who subsequently went to Italy to learn Italian and to Germany to learn German, I have to say that I would be seriously disappointed to be taught

[10] Names have been changed but the messages appear here exactly as they were online.

English by someone who is not a native speaker. Although non-native speakers may have a better understanding of some of the more obvious problems than a "fresh" native TEFL/TIFL/TGFL/TFFL teacher, this advantage is soon lost as the native teacher becomes aware of the problems. The big problem with the non-native teacher, unless they are so fluent that natives cannot hear the difference, is that, because their own English is not "idiomatically correct" or is noticeably accented, they will not be able to pass these subtleties to their students. [...] I'm sorry to sound so negative. In the end, a good non-native teacher is of course better than a poor native teacher. But getting over the barrier of quite reasonable prejudice may be hard for you. There are a lot of unemployed native TEFL teachers around, and given the choice, unless you have built up a fantastic reputation, I would pick a native speaker if given the choice. In any case, I wish you good luck.

Mark Overhagen, Germany

Subject: Reply.

I think Mark's reply to Giovanna is a bit too negative. I have several colleagues who are NNS ESL teachers at my community college. The response they get from students is directly related to the quality of their instruction. The administration does not get more complaints from Ss about them than about the NS teachers. True, those complaints often mention the teacher's accent as a reason for disliking the class. I think that has more to do with finding an easy target than anything else. I team-teach a class with one of my NNS colleagues, and I have to say that

she is almost universally admired and respected by our students. Besides being an excellent teacher, she is a role model for our students struggling to find a place in a new society. Particularly for those who have near-native fluency, accent should be, and often is, a non-issue in hiring decisions. I know that the administrator responsible for hiring decisions in my department goes out of her way to find applicants who have a solid foundation for empathy with ESL students.

To this end, she particularly looks for applicants who have lived outside of North America (not just visited, but lived for a significant amount of time in a non-English-speaking environment.) Given the choice between two applicants with equal professional qualifications and experience, one of whom is a NS who has never lived abroad, the other a NNS with near-native fluency, she would choose the latter.

So, good luck, Giovanna! There are openings out there for the talented NNS teacher in the U.S. market.

Barbara Thompson, USA

Before ending this thesis, the researcher, who is herself an ESL nonnative English-speaking teacher, would like to share her opinion. Although feeling very insecure when she started to teach ESL, time and experience have taught her that her students do admire and appreciate her greatly. She has learned that her enthusiasm and love of teaching are more important than the mistakes she occasionally makes. She also quickly felt rewarded that many students sought her help with grammar questions, pronunciation

troubles, careers choices, and learning advice, as well as when they were experiencing discouragement, culture shock, homesickness, or difficulties in their studies.

It is the hope of the researcher that this thesis will help resolve the issues of the continuing debate illustrated in this thesis. It is also hoped that it will help NNESTs realize what they can do and how important they are for their students. Finally, it is hoped that this research will help other people, teachers, administrators, parents, and of course our beloved students, better understand NNESTs' challenges as well as their many incontestable qualities.

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APPENDIX A
Initial Questionnaires in English[11]

This research is being conducted by a BYU student. Your participation is entirely anonymous and voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Your teacher will NOT see your answers and your answers will NOT affect your grades. Return of this questionnaire implies your consent to participate in this research. This questionnaire asks you about your feelings as you are starting a new class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher (a teacher who does not speak English as his/her first language). Some questions are general, and others are more specifically about your NEW teacher.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP!

Please answer the following questions about yourself.

1. Please write your student number: _____
2. Country of origin: _____
3. First Language(s): _____
4. Gender: (a) male (b) female
5. Age group: (a) 17-20 (b) 21-23 (c) 24-26 (d) 27-29 (e) 30+
6. Number of years and months spent in the U.S.: _____
7. Number of years of study of English, in the U.S. or in your country: _____
8. How many NONNATIVE English teachers have you had while learning English **in your country**?
   (a) none
   (b) one
   (c) two
   (d) three
   (e) more than three
   (f) I only had nonnative teachers
9. NOT counting your current teacher, how many NONNATIVE English teachers have you had while learning English **in the U.S.?**
   my current teacher is the first one
   (a) none
   (b) one
   (c) two
   (d) three
   (e) more than three
   (f) I only had nonnative teachers
10. Have you learned languages other than English? (a) yes (b) no
11. If yes, which ones? _____
12. Why are you learning English? (circle all that apply)
    (a) to go to an English-speaking school or university
    (b) for work
    (c) for immigration
    (d) because I know English is very important in today's society
    (e) for other reasons (explain) _____
13. What language skills, in English (grammar, speaking, writing, preparation for a test, etc.) are most important for you to focus on? _____

[11] Only the English version of the NNEST questionnaire is given here but anyone interested in the translations or the NEST questionnaires is welcomed to request them.

14. Do you plan to go back to your country after you finish your studies in the U.S.?
(a) yes (b) no (c) not sure yet
15. What do you think NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers teach **best**? (circle all that apply)
(a) reading
(b) grammar
(c) listening
(d) writing
(e) speaking
(f) pronunciation
(g) culture
(h) vocabulary
(i) test preparation classes (TOEFL, etc.)
(j) nothing
(k) other (explain) _____

Please answer the following questions about NONNATIVE English-speaking ESL teachers IN GENERAL **by circling the numbers that correspond to your feelings:**
1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: not sure, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree

16. *1 2 3 4 5* I can learn English just as well from a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher as I can from a NATIVE English-speaking teacher.
17. *1 2 3 4 5* Students' attitudes affect how well a teacher teaches in general.
18. *1 2 3 4 5* A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher.
19. *1 2 3 4 5* Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures and the world.
20. *1 2 3 4 5* I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers.
21. *1 2 3 4 5* I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language.
22. *1 2 3 4 5* NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions.
23. *1 2 3 4 5* I feel as comfortable talking about personal problems with NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers as with NATIVE English-speaking teachers.

Please answer the following questions about your NEW **NONNATIVE English-speaking English teacher.**

24. Where is your NEW teacher from? _____
25. Do you speak the NATIVE language of your teacher?
(a) no, not at all (b) yes, but only a little (c) yes, quite well (d) yes, natively
26. Have you visited the country of your teacher? (a) yes (b) no
27. Would you encourage a friend to take a class with THIS NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher? (a) yes (b) no (c) not sure yet
28. Why or why not? _____
29. I know this teacher is a NONNATIVE English-speaking person, because of
(a) his/her accent
(b) his/her physical appearance
(c) he/she told the class
(d) other (explain) _____
(e) I did not know my teacher was a NONNATIVE English-speaker until now.

Please answer the following questions about your NEW **NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher by circling the numbers that correspond to your feelings:**
1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: not sure, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree

30. *1 2 3 4 5* I feel that this teacher will be a good teacher for me.
31. *1 2 3 4 5* I am not sure yet if this new teacher knows his/her subject very well.
32. *1 2 3 4 5* I respect and admire this teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher.
33. *1 2 3 4 5* The English pronunciation of my new teacher is good.
34. *1 2 3 4 5* My teacher seems to know grammar very well.
35. *1 2 3 4 5* My teacher looks like a typical American person.
36. *1 2 3 4 5* If I could choose a new teacher today, I would do it.
37. *1 2 3 4 5* I expect this class to be a positive experience in general.

Please answer the following questions about your NEW NONNATIVE English teacher or OTHER English teachers with as many details as possible. If you do not know how to say something in English, feel free to write it in your own language.

38. In general, how can a teacher make you enthusiastic (eager) about learning English?

39. How do you feel about your new NONNATIVE teacher at this time?

40. If you have any other comments about NONNATIVE English teachers, please feel free to write them here!

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP!

APPENDIX B
Final Questionnaires in English[12]

This questionnaire asks you about your feelings as you are ending your semester with a NONNATIVE English-speaking English teacher. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Return of this questionnaire implies your consent to participate in this research. Your participation is entirely ***anonymous*** *and* ***voluntary****. Your teacher will NOT see your answers and your answers will NOT affect your grades.*

Please answer the following questions about yourself.

1. Please write your student number: _____
2. Country of origin: _____
3. Gender: ( ) male ( ) female
4. Age group: ( ) 17-20 ( ) 21-23 ( ) 24-26 ( ) 27-29 ( ) 30+
5. Why are you learning English?
   ( ) to go to an English-speaking school or university
   ( ) for work
   ( ) for immigration
   ( ) because I know English is very important in today's society
   ( ) for other reasons (explain) _____
6. Do you plan to go back to your country after you finish study in the U.S.?
   ( ) yes ( ) no ( ) not sure

Please answer the following questions about NONNATIVE English teachers IN GENERAL by circling the numbers that correspond to your feelings:

1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: not sure, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree

7. [1 2 3 4 5] I can learn English just as well from a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher as I can from a NATIVE English-speaking teacher.
8. [1 2 3 4 5] Students' attitudes affect how well a teacher teaches in general.
9. [1 2 3 4 5] A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher.
10. [1 2 3 4 5] Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures.
11. [1 2 3 4 5] I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers don't know as much about culture as NATIVE English speakers.
12. [1 2 3 4 5] I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language.
13. [1 2 3 4 5] NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions.
14. [1 2 3 4 5] I think I feel as comfortable talking about personal problems with NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers as with NATIVE English-speaking teachers.

Please answer the following questions about your ***ACTUAL*** *NONNATIVE English teacher (not teachers from other classes).*

15. Where is your actual teacher from? _ _____ ___

[12] Only the English version of the questionnaire is given here but anyone interested in the translations is welcomed to request them from the director of the English Language Center of Brigham Young University.

16. Would you encourage a friend to take a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher? ( ) yes ( ) no ( ) not sure
17. Why or why not? _____
18. What language skills, in English, from the list below are the most important for you to focus on? (write the letter(s) here) _____
(a) reading
(b) grammar
(c) listening
(d) writing
(e) speaking
(f) pronunciation
(g) culture
(h) vocabulary
(i) test preparation classes (TOEFL, etc.)
(j) other (explain)
19. From the list above, what do you think NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers teach **best**? (write the letter(s) here) _____

Please answer the following questions about your ACTUAL **NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers specifically, (not teachers from other classes) by** circling **the numbers that correspond to your feelings**

1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: not sure, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree

20 [1 2 3 4 5] I feel that this teacher was a good teacher for me.
21. [1 2 3 4 5] I think this teacher knew his/her subject very well.
22. [1 2 3 4 5] I respect and admire this teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher.
23. [1 2 3 4 5] The English pronunciation of my teacher is good.
24. [1 2 3 4 5] My teacher knows grammar very well.
25. [1 2 3 4 5] I do not regret having taken this class with this teacher.
26. [1 2 3 4 5] This class was a positive experience in general.
27. [1 2 3 4 5] My feelings toward my nonnative teacher have changed during the semester.

Please answer the following questions with as many details as possible. If you want to say something about your new NONNATIVE English teacher or other English teachers, but do not know how to say it in English, feel free to **write in your own language**.

28. How do you feel about your new NONNATIVE teacher at this time?

29. Did your feelings change between the first day and the last day of class? If so, why?

30. If you have any other comments, please feel free to write them here!

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP!

APPENDIX C
Instructions and Requests

Request for participation in interviews for the students

My name is Lucie Moussu. I am a graduate student from BYU and I need to do research for my Master's degree. I would like to interview you a few times during the semester about the ELC and your experiences here as a student.

The information you give me will be TOTALLY confidential. I will take notes while you speak, but your teachers will NOT see your answers. These interviews will NOT influence your grades or anything you do at school.

Every time we meet, I will ask you a few questions for about 10 minutes. Then I will help you for about the same amount of time with any question that you might have with English.

If you agree to help me, please sigh at the bottom of the page, and write your phone number, so I can call you to decide when we meet. Please bring this paper to my office after class in room 254. If you have any questions, you can come to my office or call me at xxx-xxxx.

Thank you very much for your help!

Name: _____ Phone number: _____

Instructions to teachers

Instructions for the teachers who have agreed to participate in Lucie Moussu's study.
Please:

- Give out the questionnaire at the END of the FIRST day of class.
- Count on about 15 minutes for the whole thing to take place.
- Some students might have more than one nonnative teacher this semester. Explain that the questionnaire you give out is only about YOU and not their other current nonnative teachers.
- Do NOT give out my name to the students. Explain that "ONLY the student who conducts this research will see what they answered," and that what they answer will NOT influence their grades.
- Explain that the questionnaire is written in 5 languages (Mandarin Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Spanish, and Portuguese,) and that the students who speak other languages can choose to answer the English version of the same questionnaire. At lower levels, this is optional. At higher levels, (4-6), the English version should not be difficult to understand for the students.
- Ask all the students to place their completed questionnaire into the provided envelope and one student in particular to bring the sealed envelope directly to Joyce when everybody is done.
- If there is any question or problem, please contact me at 8-xxxx or xxx-xxxx.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP!

APPENDIX D
Students' Interviews

First Interview

Name: Teacher: Date:

1. Why did you come to the ELC?
2. What was the first impression you had of: the ELC, your classmates, your teachers, and your actual teacher?
3. Remember the first day of class with this teacher, what were your emotions?
4. Why?
5. That first day, did something make you sad, happy, or angry?
6. What do you think about: the ELC, your classmates, your teachers, and your actual teacher?
7. Tell me about the teaching methods at the ELC?
8. Rate the following:
   a) how I feel about my class (bad) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 (good)
   b) how I feel about my teacher 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   c) how my teacher teaches 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   d)how well my teacher knows what he or she teachers 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   e) my choice to come to the ELC 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
9. If you could change anything about your teacher, what would it be?

Second Interview

Name: Teacher: Date:

1. How is this semester going for you?
2. How many semesters have you been at the ELC?
3. Who are your 4 teachers?
4. What do you think about them?
5. What do you think about (your native or nonnative teacher)?
6. Do you feel that things are different now than at the beginning?
7. Rate the following:
   a) how I feel about my class 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   b) how my teacher teaches 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   c) how well my teacher knows the topic he or she teaches 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   d) how I feel about this half semester at the ELC 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
8. Any other comments?

Third Interview

Name: Teacher: Date:

1. How are your classes going for you?
2. Now that you have been here for a whole semester, what are your impressions of the ELC, your classes, and your teachers?
3. Describe how your classes now compare to the beginning of the semester.
4. What do you now think about (your native or nonnative teacher)?
5. What do you think about the fact that he/she is native/nonnative?
6. What is a "native speaker of English" and a "nonnative speaker" ?
7. You have had native/nonnative teachers. Describe their strengths and weaknesses.
8. Rate the following:
   a) how I feel about my class (what makes me give such grade?) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   b) how my teacher teaches 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   c) how well my teacher knows the topic he or she teaches 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   d) how I feel about this semester at the ELC 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
9. What other comments can you make about your classes, your classmates, your teachers, and your (native or nonnative teacher)?
10. Can I quote you in my thesis? Y / N Signature: _____
11. Do you want me to Use a pseudonym?

APPENDIX E
Questionnaires Used for the Pilot Study

Initial questionnaire

1. Please write your student number: _____
2. Country of origin: _____
3. First Language(s): _____
4. Gender: (a) male (b) female
5. Age group: (a) 17-20 (b) 21-23 (c) 24-26 (d) 27-29 (e) 30+
6. Number of years spent in the U.S.:
   (a) less than a year (b) 1-2 years (c) 2-3 years (d) more than five years
7. Number of years of previous study of English, in the U.S. or in your country: (a) less than a year (b) 1-2 years (c) 2-3 years (d) more than five years
8. Have you learned languages other than English? (a) yes (b) no
9. If yes, which ones? _____
10. Why are you learning English?
    (a) for school
    (b) for work
    (c) for immigration
    (d) because I know English is very important today
    (e) for other reasons (explain) _____
11. Do you plan to go back to your country after you finish your studies in the U.S.?
    (a) yes (b) no (c) not sure yet
12. **Not counting your current teacher,** how many NONNATIVE English teachers have you had while learning English?
    (a) my current teacher is the first one
    (b) one
    (c) two
    (d) three
    (e) more than three
    (f) I only had nonnative teachers
13. Where is your teacher from? _____
14. Do you speak the NATIVE language of your teacher?
    (a) yes (b) no
15. If so, are you pleased that you speak the language of your teacher?
    (a) yes (b) no
16. Have you visited the country of your teacher?
    (a) yes (b) no
17. Do you know other people who are from the country of your teacher?
    (a) yes (b) no _____
18. What do you think NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers are good at teaching?
    (a) reading
    (b) grammar
    (c) listening
    (d) writing
    (e) speaking/pronunciation
    (f) culture
    (g) nothing

Please answer the following questions according to a scale from 1 to 5:
1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: not sure, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree

19. This teacher makes me want to study very well 1 2 3 4 5
20. I can learn English just as well from a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher as I can from a NATIVE English-speaking teacher. 1 2 3 4 5
21. Students' attitudes affect how well a teacher teaches in general. 1 2 3 4 5
22. NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much power in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher. 1 2 3 4 5
23. Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures and the world. 1 2 3 4 5
24. I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers. 1 2 3 4 5
25. I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach ESL. 1 2 3 4 5
26. NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions. 1 2 3 4 5
27. Nonnative speaking teachers care as much about their students as native-speaking teachers. 1 2 3 4 5
28. I feel as comfortable talking about personal problems with NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers as with other teachers. 1 2 3 4 5
29. I expect that this teacher will be a good teacher for me. 1 2 3 4 5
30. I am not sure yet if this new teacher knows this subject very well. 1 2 3 4 5
31. I respect this teacher because he is a nonnative English speaker. 1 2 3 4 5
32. The English pronunciation of my new teacher is good. 1 2 3 4 5
33. My teacher seems to know grammar very well. 1 2 3 4 5
34. If I could change my teacher today, I would do it. 1 2 3 4 5
35. It is more difficult to get good grades from a nonnative English-speaking teachers than from native speaking teachers. 1 2 3 4 5
36. It is important in our society to be able to communicate with people from different languages, countries, and cultures. 1 2 3 4 5
37. I expect this class to be a positive experience in general. 1 2 3 4 5

Please answer the following questions with as many details as possible.

38. In general, how can a teacher make you eager to learn English?

39. How do you feel about your new NONNATIVE teacher at this time?

40. If you have any other comments, please feel free to write them here!

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP AND YOUR TIME!

Final questionnaire

*This questionnaire asks you about your feelings as you are ending your semester with a NONNATIVE English-speaking English teacher. Some questions are general, and others are more specifically about your CURRENT teacher. If, **at any time**, you want to say something but do not know how to say it in English, please feel free to write it IN YOUR OWN LANGUAGE.*

Please answer the following questions about yourself.

1. Please write your student number: _____
2. Country of origin: _____
3. Gender: ( ) male ( ) female
4. Age group: ( ) 17-20 ( ) 21-23 ( ) 24-26 ( ) 27-29 ( ) 30+
5. Why are you learning English?
   ( ) to go to an English-speaking school or university
   ( ) for work
   ( ) for immigration
   ( ) because I know English is very important in today's society
   ( ) for other reasons (explain) _____
6. Do you plan to go back to your country after you finish study in the U.S.?

   ( ) yes ( ) no ( ) not sure

Please answer the following questions about NONNATIVE English-speaking ESL teachers IN GENERAL by circling the numbers that correspond to your feelings:

***1**: strongly disagree, **2**: disagree, **3**: not sure, **4**: agree, **5**: strongly agree*

7. ***1 2 3 4 5*** Students' attitudes affect how well a teacher teaches in general.
9. ***1 2 3 4 5*** A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher.
10. ***1 2 3 4 5*** Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures.
11. ***1 2 3 4 5*** I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about culture as NATIVE English speakers.
12. ***1 2 3 4 5*** I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language.
13. ***1 2 3 4 5*** NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions.
14. ***1 2 3 4 5*** I think I feel as comfortable talking about personal problems with NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers as with NATIVE English-speaking teachers.

*Please answer the following questions about your **NEW NONNATIVE English-speaking ESL teacher**.*

15. **NOT counting your current teacher**, how many nonnative English-speaking teachers have you had while learning English (in your country and in the U.S.)?
   ( ) my current teacher is the first one
   ( ) one
   ( ) two
   ( ) three
   ( ) more than three
   ( ) I only had nonnative teachers

16. Where is your actual teacher from? _____
17. Would you encourage a friend to take a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher? ( ) yes ( ) no ( ) not sure
18. Why or why not? _____
19. What do you think nonnative English-speaking teachers teach best? (check all that apply)
    (a) reading
    (b) grammar
    (c) listening
    (d) writing
    (e) speaking
    (f) pronunciation
    (g) culture
    (h) vocabulary
    (i) test preparation classes (TOEFL, etc.)
    (j) nothing
    (j) other (explain) _____

*Please answer the following questions about your **NEW** NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers specifically, according to a scale from 1 to 5:*
***1**: strongly disagree, **2**: disagree, **3**: not sure, **4**: agree, **5**: strongly agree*

20. *1 2 3 4 5* I feel that this teacher was a good teacher for me.
21. *1 2 3 4 5* I think this teacher knew his/her subject very well.
22. *1 2 3 4 5* I respect and admire this teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher.
23. *1 2 3 4 5* The English pronunciation of my teacher is good.
24. *1 2 3 4 5* My teacher knows grammar very well.
25. *1 2 3 4 5* My teacher looks like a Typical American person.
26. *1 2 3 4 5* I do not regret having taken this class with this teacher.
27. *1 2 3 4 5* This class was a positive experience in general.
28. *1 2 3 4 5* My feelings toward my nonnative teacher have changed during the semester.

*Please answer the following questions with as many details as possible. If you want to say something about your new NONNATIVE English teacher or other ESL teachers, but do not know how to say it in English, feel free to **write in your own language**.*

29. How do you feel about your new NONNATIVE teacher at this time? Did your feelings change between the first day and the last day of class? If so, why?

30. If you have any other comments, please feel free to write them here!

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP!

APPENDIX F
Descriptions of Students' Levels at the ELC

Level 0

- Unable to communicate in English regardless of the listener.

Level 1

- Able to operate only in a very limited capacity within predictable areas of elementary need
- Can express basic formulas and expressions
- Able to ask and answer simple questions with incomplete structure (one or two-word responses)
- Almost every utterance contains fractured syntax or other grammatical errors
- Interference in articulation, stress, and intonation
- Frequent misunderstandings due to limited vocabulary and skill in grammar and pronunciation

Level 2

- Able to satisfy basic survival needs and minimum courtesy requirements
- Can ask and answer simple questions concerning very familiar topics
- Can initiate and respond to simple statements
- Can give narration in simple present and past tenses, but with many errors and uncertainty
- Can maintain very simple face-to-face conversations
- Able to formulate some questions with limited constructions and much inaccuracy
- Vocabulary inadequate to express anything but the most elementary needs
- Misunderstandings due to mispronunciation, but with repetition, can generally be understood by patient native speakers

Level 3

- Able to satisfy some survival needs and some social demands
- Some evidence of grammatical constructions such as subject-verb agreement
- Vocabulary permits discussion of topics beyond basic survival such as personal history and leisure time
- Able to formulate DO questions, but with a some errors
- Able to use simple present, past, and future tenses with only a few errors

Level 4

- Able to satisfy most survival needs and social demands
- Developing flexibility in a range of circumstances beyond immediate survival needs
- Spontaneity in language production but fluency is uneven
- Can initiate and sustain a general conversation
- Able to use simple past, present, and future tenses with very few errors

- Shows limited knowledge of perfect tenses, but with frequent errors
- Can use most question forms including some modals
- Pronunciation comprehensible to native speakers who are used to dealing with foreigners

Level 5

- Able to handle most social situations including introductions
- Able to carry on a casual conversation about current events, work, family, and autobiographical information
- Has a speaking vocabulary sufficient to handle most questions
- Can use simple tenses with accuracy
- Can use perfect tenses with limited accuracy
- Pronunciation understandable to most native speakers, but occasional repetition may be necessary
- Can Use modals in questions, statements, and in giving responses with limited accuracy

Level 6

- Can handle most social situations with confidence
- Can handle some formal situations with confidence
- Can describe an event in the past or give details about future events or plans
- Able to support an opinion and begin to discuss abstract concepts
- Can handle quite sophisticated constructions, but still makes minor errors that do not inhibit communication
- Can be understood by any English speaker
- Can use conditionals with limited accuracy

APPENDIX G
Tabulated Results Corresponding to Figures in Chapter 4

Although these are Tables, they are called by the name of their corresponding Figures in Chapter 4.

Figure 4. I-8: Number of previous NNESTs in country of origin (n=86)

Number	Totals	Percentage
0	15	17.44
1 or 2	14	16.28
3 or more	13	26.74
only NNESTs	34	39.53

Figure 5. I-9: Number of previous NNESTs in the U.S. (n=85)

Number	Totals	Percentage
This is the first one	47	55.29
1 or 2 (plus this new one)	27	31.76
3 or more (" " " ")	10	11.77
only NNESTs	1	1.18

Figure 6. I-16: "*I can learn English just as well from a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher as I can from a NATIVE English-speaking teacher*" (n=86).

Opinion	Totals	Percent
strongly disagree	3	3.49
disagree	10	11.63
not sure	14	16.28
agree	37	43.02
strongly agree	22	25.58

Figure 7. I-18: "*A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher*" (n=84) and F-11 (n=81)[13].

	I-18		F-11		Difference
Opinion	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Percent.
SD	3	3.57	0	0.00	-3.57
D	2	2.38	1	1.25	-1.13
NS	10	11.90	7	8.75	-3.15
A	17	20.24	17	21.25	+1.01
SA	52	61.90	56	68.75	+6.85

Figure 8. I-22: "*NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions*"(n=82).

Opinion	Totals	Percent
strongly disagree	32	39.02
disagree	28	34.15
not sure	13	15.85
agree	5	6.10
strongly agree	4	4.88

Figure 9. I-21: "I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language"(n=82).

Opinion	Totals	Percent
strongly disagree	47	57.32
disagree	18	21.95
not sure	11	13.41
agree	4	4.88
strongly agree	2	2.44

[13] The following abbreviations will be used for all tables comparing the results of the initial questionnaire with those of the final questionnaire: SD: strongly disagree; D: disagree; NS: not sure; A: agree; SA: strongly agree.

Figure 10. I-19: "Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures and the world" (n=84).

Opinion	Totals	Percent
strongly disagree	2	2.38
disagree	5	5.95
not sure	11	13.10
agree	38	45.24
strongly agree	28	33.33

Figure 11. I-20: "*I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers*" (n=82).

Opinion	Totals	Percent
strongly disagree	12	14.63
disagree	20	24.39
not sure	29	35.37
agree	18	21.95
strongly agree	3	3.66

Figure 12. I-36: "*If I could choose a new teacher today, I would do it*" (n=83).

Opinion	Totals	Percent
strongly disagree	21	25.30
disagree	18	21.69
not sure	26	31.33
agree	9	10.84
strongly agree	9	10.84

Figure 13. I-32: "*I respect and admire this teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher*" (n=82) .

Opinion	Totals	Percent
strongly disagree	2	2.44
disagree	4	4.88
not sure	11	13.41
agree	26	31.71
strongly agree	39	47.56

Figure 14. I-27: "*Would you encourage a friend to take a class with THIS NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher?*" (n=82) and F-18: (n=80).

	I-27		F-18		Difference
Opinion	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Percent.
yes	46	56.78	61	76.25	+19.46
no	2	2.46	5	6.25	+3.79
not sure	44	40.74	14	17.50	+23.24

Figure 15. I-37: "I expect this class to be a positive experience in general" (n=83) and F-26: *"This class was a positive experience in general"* (n=81).

	I-37		F-26		Difference
Opinion	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Percent.
SD	1	1.20	0	0.00	+1.20
D	2	2.41	4	4.94	+2.53
NS	10	12.05	10	12.35	+0.30
A	25	30.12	22	27.16	-2.96
SA	45	54.22	45	55.56	+1.34

Figure 16. I-30: "*I feel that this teacher will be a good teacher for me*" (n=81) and F-20: "*I feel that this teacher was a good teacher for me*" (n=81).

	I-30		F-20		Difference
Opinion	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Percent.
SD	0	0.00	1	1.23	+1.23
D	2	2.47	3	3.70	+1.23
NS	19	23.46	10	12.35	-11.11
A	30	37.04	28	34.57	-2.47
SA	30	37.04	39	48.15	+11.11

Figure 17. I-31: "*I am not sure yet if this new teacher knows his/her subject very well*" (n=83) and F-21 "*I think this teacher knew his/her subject very well*" (n=81).

	I-31		F-21		Difference
Opinion	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Percent.
SD	20	24.10	0	0.00	-24.10
D	24	28.90	3	3.70	-25.20
NS	27	32.50	9	11.11	-21.42
A	10	12.05	29	35.80	+23.75
SA	2	2.41	40	49.38	+46.97

Figure 18. Inverted I-31: "*I **THINK** this new teacher knows his/her subject very well*" (n=83) and F-21 "*I think this teacher knew his/her subject very well*" (n=84).

	I-31		F-21		Difference
Opinion	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Percent.
SD	20	24.10	40	49.38	+25.28
D	24	28.90	33	35.80	+6.88
NS	27	32.50	9	11.11	-21.42
A	10	12.05	2	3.70	-8.38
SA	2	2.41	0	0.00	-2.41

Figure 19. I-20: "*I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers*" (n=82) and F-13: (n=80).

	I-20		F-13		Difference
Opinion	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Percent.
SD	12	14.63	21	26.25	+11.89
D	20	24.39	21	26.25	+1.86
NS	29	35.37	25	31.25	-4.12
A	18	21.95	10	12.50	-20.45
SA	3	3.66	3	3.75	+0.09

Figure 20. I-34: "*My teacher seems to know grammar very well*" (n=83) and F-24: "*My teacher knows grammar very well*" (n=81).

	I-34		F-24		Difference
Opinion	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Percent.
SD	0	0.00	1	1.23	+1.23
D	0	0.00	1	1.23	+1.23
NS	21	25.30	10	12.35	-12.95
A	33	39.76	28	34.57	-5.19
SA	29	39.94	41	50.62	+10.68

APPENDIX H:
All results of the ANOVA analysis for all questions

The following abbreviations are used to give the individual results of each variable:
- **Teacher**: if the answers given about individual teachers are significant;
- **Language**: if the answers given by different language groups are significant;
- **Gender**: if the gender of the students influenced their answers;
- **Age**: if the age of the students influenced their answers;
- **NNESTs home**: if the number of NNESTs the students previously had in their country of origin influenced their answers
- **NNESTs US**: if the number of NNESTs the students previously had in the US influenced their answers;
- **Other lang.**: if the fact that the students had previously learned other languages influenced their answers;
- **Go back**: if the intent of the students to go back to their country influenced their answers.

I-16: *I can learn English just as well from a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher as I can from a NATIVE English-speaking teacher*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	2.8582	0.9527	0.96	0.4186
Language	5	10.2028	2.0405	2.05	0.0823
Gender	1	0.1340	0.1340	0.13	0.7150
Age	4	5.7377	1.4344	1.44	0.2302
NNESTs home	5	6.0039	1.2007	1.32	0.2774
NNESTs US	5	6.8391	1.3678	1.51	0.2019
Other lang.	1	0.2493	0.2493	0.27	0.6022
Go back	2	1.7937	0.8968	0.99	0.3786

I-17: *Students' attitudes affect how well a teacher teaches in general.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	2.9150	0.9716	0.83	0.4802
Language	5	4.4324	0.8864	0.76	0.5817
Gender	1	1.6336	1.6336	2.85	0.0960
Age	4	4.2305	1.0576	0.91	0.4649
NNESTs home	5	8.2997	1.6599	1.35	0.2578
NNESTs US	5	2.3486	0.4697	0.38	0.8595
Other lang.	1	0.0247	0.0247	0.02	0.8877
Go back	2	1.3622	0.6811	0.55	0.5783

I-18: *A NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher has as much authority in the classroom as a NATIVE English-speaking teacher.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value_
Teacher	3	1.5772	0.5257	0.94	0.4245
Language	5	42.3361	8.4672	15.19	**<.0001**
Gender	1	0.8646	0.8646	1.76	0.1885
Age	4	2.2697	0.8424	1.51	0.2082
NNESTs home	5	3.2699	0.6539	1.13	0.3545
NNESTs US	5	1.4953	0.2990	0.52	0.7620
Other lang.	1	0.0643	0.0643	0.11	0.7399
Go back	2	0.4614	0.2307	0.40	0.6728

I-19: *Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures and the world.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	1.0876	0.3625	0.47	0.7007
Language	5	14.8103	2.9620	3.88	**0.0037**
Gender	1	1.1919	1.1919	1.56	0.2156
Age	4	2.8701	0.7175	0.94	0.4460
NNESTs home	5	3.4944	0.6988	0.85	0.5230
NNESTs US	5	1.8059	0.3611	0.44	0.8206
Other lang.	1	0.6368	0.6368	0.77	0.3836
Go back	2	0.5059	0.2529	0.31	0.7374

I-20: *I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	1.6368	0.5456	0.51	0.4568
Language	5	5.5150	1.1030	1.02	0.4102
Gender	1	0.3814	0.3814	0.35	0.5537
Age	4	5.8886	1.4721	1.37	0.2544
NNESTs home	5	3.3947	0.6798	0.75	0.5916
NNESTs US	5	2.1454	0.4290	0.47	0.7952
Other lang.	1	0.8468	0.8468	0.93	0.3386
Go back	2	15.7173	7.8586	8.65	**0.0006**

I-21: *I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	1.9237	0.6412	0.77	0.5129
Language	5	10.8417	2.1683	2.50	**0.0326**
Gender	1	0.0302	0.0302	0.04	0.8495
Age	4	11.5181	2.8795	3.46	**0.0125**
NNESTs home	5	0.8033	0.1606	0.18	0.9706
NNESTs US	5	2.7454	0.5490	0.60	0.6998
Other lang.	1	1.0111	1.0111	1.11	0.2978
Go back	2	0.1284	0.0642	0.07	0.9323

I-22: *NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	0.6945	0.2315	0.19	0.9028
Language	5	5.0096	1.0019	0.82	0.5378
Gender	1	0.1241	0.1241	0.10	0.7505
Age	4	5.0481	1.2620	1.04	0.3950
NNESTs home	5	1.7943	0.3588	0.26	0.9329
NNESTs US	5	1.3426	0.2685	0.19	0.9633
Other lang.	1	0.1671	0.1671	0.12	0.7292
Go back	2	0.7547	0.3778	0.27	0.7618

I-23: *I feel as comfortable talking about personal problems with NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers as with NATIVE English-speaking teachers.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	5.1075	1.7025	1.30	0.2816
Language	5	18.3359	3.6671	2.80	**0.0234**
Gender	1	0.1795	0.1795	0.14	0.7123
Age	4	9.3766	2.3441	1.79	0.1410
NNESTs home	5	5.7345	1.1459	0.81	0.5477
NNESTs US	5	3.1814	0.5352	0.45	0.8118
Other lang.	1	0.0394	0.0394	0.03	0.8691
Go back	2	0.4046	0.2023	0.14	0.8672

I-30: *I feel that this teacher will be a good teacher for me.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	2.8492	0.9497	1.34	0.2680
Language	5	4.3735	0.8747	1.24	0.3020
Gender	1	0.0412	0.0412	0.06	0.8099
Age	4	3.2047	0.8011	1.13	0.3487
NNESTs home	5	4.4403	0.8880	1.20	0.3227
NNESTs US	5	1.6967	0.3393	0.46	0.8057
Other lang.	1	0.0983	0.0983	0.13	0.7171
Go back	2	2.3258	1.1629	1.57	0.2177

I-31: *I am not sure yet if this new teacher knows his/her subject very well.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	4.8091	1.6030	1.77	0.1602
Language	5	14.9257	2.9851	3.30	**0.0098**
Gender	1	1.9370	1.9370	2.14	0.1477
Age	4	5.9047	1.4761	1.63	0.1756
NNESTs home	5	10.2765	2.0553	2.34	**0.0533**
NNESTs US	5	0.7894	0.1973	0.22	0.9234
Other lang.	1	0.4753	0.4753	0.54	0.4649
Go back	2	1.9921	0.9950	1.13	0.3289

I-32: *I respect and admire this teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	9.5863	3.1954	4.57	**0.0057**
Language	5	26.7165	5.3433	7.64	**<.0001**
Gender	1	0.1111	0.1111	0.16	0.6915
Age	4	0.9796	0.2449	0.35	0.8431
NNESTs home	5	1.5314	0.3052	0.42	0.8333
NNESTs US	5	3.2956	0.6591	0.90	0.4864
Other lang.	1	0.4697	0.4697	0.64	0.4261
Go back	2	4.6125	2.3062	3.16	**0.0505**

I-33: *The English pronunciation of my new teacher is good.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	15.3280	5.1093	9.09	**<.0001**
Language	5	7.6565	1.5313	2.73	**0.0264**
Gender	1	0.3177	0.3177	0.57	0.4547
Age	4	2.9748	0.7437	1.32	0.2700
NNESTs home	5	1.6043	0.3208	0.54	0.7469
NNESTs US	5	1.4776	0.2955	0.50	0.7785
Other lang.	1	0.7856	0.7856	1.32	0.2262
Go back	2	0.7214	0.3607	0.50	0.5500

I-34: *My teacher seems to know grammar very well.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	2.2005	0.7335	1.34	0.2686
Language	5	4.8581	0.9716	1.77	0.1296
Gender	1	0.0455	0.0455	0.08	0.7738
Age	4	2.9894	0.7473	1.37	0.2551
NNESTs home	5	2.5958	0.5191	0.89	0.4931
NNESTs US	5	2.1063	0.4212	0.72	0.6087
Other lang.	1	0.0003	0.0003	0.00	0.9817
Go back	2	0.1268	0.0634	0.11	0.8970

I-35: *My teacher looks like a typical American person.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	30.1690	10.056	9.00	**<.0001**
Language	5	19.2023	3.8404	3.44	**0.0079**
Gender	1	0.3854	0.3854	0.34	0.5590
Age	4	11.9002	2.9750	2.66	**0.0398**
NNESTs home	5	4.7544	0.9508	0.83	0.5366
NNESTs US	5	5.6794	1.1358	0.99	0.4343
Other lang.	1	0.3131	0.3131	0.27	0.6041
Go back	2	2.7012	1.3506	1.17	0.3170

I-36: *If I could choose a new teacher today, I would do it.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	1.6463	0.5487	0.39	0.7630
Language	5	24.2827	4.8565	3.42	**0.0081**
Gender	1	2.2191	2.2191	1.56	0.2154
Age	4	12.1521	3.0380	2.14	0.0850
NNESTs home	5	10.0133	2.0026	1.54	0.1926
NNESTs US	5	4.1590	0.8318	0.64	0.6704
Other lang.	1	0.0888	0.0888	0.07	0.7947
Go back	2	10.4251	5.2125	4.01	**0.0237**

I-37: *I expect this class to be a positive experience in general.*

	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F-value	P-value
Teacher	3	2.9883	0.9961	1.68	0.1785
Language	5	11.7909	2.3581	3.99	**0.0031**
Gender	1	0.0641	0.0641	0.11	0.7430
Age	4	3.8896	0.9724	1.64	0.1731
NNESTs home	5	2.3274	0.4654	0.79	0.5615
NNESTs US	5	3.4732	0.6946	1.18	0.3314
Other lang.	1	1.1030	1.1030	1.87	0.1768
Go back	2	0.3464	0.1732	0.29	0.7465

APPENDIX I
Tables corresponding to the following discussions

Differences between the language groups

- Means per language group for I-19 (Having a class with a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher is an opportunity to develop better knowledge about different cultures and the world.)

Language group	Means
Spanish	4.17
Japanese	4.43
Korean	3.21
Brazilian	3.78
Chinese	4.39
Other languages	3.43

P-value: 0.0037

- Means per language group for I-21 (I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language.)

Language group	Means
Spanish	1.47
Japanese	1.59
Korean	2.13
Brazilian	1.53
Chinese	2.88
Other languages	1.86

P-value: 0.0326

- Means per language group for I-23 (I feel as comfortable talking about personal problems with NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers as with NATIVE English-speaking teachers.)

Language group	Means
Spanish	4.14
Japanese	4.81
Korean	3.52
Brazilian	3.24
Chinese	3.58
Other languages	3.82

P-value: 0.0234

- Means per language group for I-31 (I am not sure yet if this new teacher knows his/her subject very well.)

Language group	Means
Spanish	2.18
Japanese	2.93
Korean	1.82
Brazilian	2.21
Chinese	3.39
Other languages	2.01

P-value: 0.0098

- Means per language group for I-33 (The English pronunciation of my new teacher is good.)

Language group	Means
Spanish	4.22
Japanese	4.02
Korean	3.35
Brazilian	4.06
Chinese	3. 57
Other languages	4.38

P-value: 0.0264

- Means per language group for I-35 (My teacher looks like a typical American person.)

Language group	Means
Spanish	2.60
Japanese	2.97
Korean	2.39
Brazilian	2.09
Chinese	3. 22
Other languages	3.86

P-value: 0.0079

- Means per language group for I-36 (If I could choose a new teacher today, I would do it.)

Language group	Means
Spanish	2.55
Japanese	3.57
Korean	2.75
Brazilian	2.11
Chinese	4.20
Other languages	2.62

P-value: 0.0081

- Means per language group for I-37 (I expect this class to be a positive experience in general.)

Language group	Means
Spanish	4.59
Japanese	4.59
Korean	4.02
Brazilian	4.37
Chinese	3.11
Other languages	4.34

P-value: 0.0031

Differences between the teachers

- Means per teacher for I-32 (I respect and admire this teacher because he/she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher).

Teacher	Means
Mr. J.	3.93
Ms. S.	3.71
Ms. E.	4.60
Ms. A.	4.13

P-value: 0.0057

Age differences of the students

- Means per age group for I-21 (I think it would be better if NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers were not allowed to teach English as a Second Language).

Age group	Means
1. 17-20	2.04
2. 21-23	1.83
3. 24-26	1.60
4. 27-29	2.70
5. 30 and older	1.39

P-value: 0.0125

- Means per age group for I-35 (My teacher looks like a typical American person).

Age group	Means
1. 17-20	2.53
2. 21-23	2.62
3. 24-26	3.13
4. 27-29	2.41
5. 30 and older	3.58

P-value: 0.0398

Intent to return to country of origin (*Do you plan to go back to your country after you finish your studies in the U.S. ?*)

- Means per intent to return in country of origin for I-20 (I think that NONNATIVE English-speaking teachers do not know as much about the U.S. culture as NATIVE English speakers).

Intent to return home	Means
yes	2.66
no	4.46
not sure	2.38

P-value: 0.0006

- Means per intent to return in country of origin for I-32 (I respect and admire this teacher because he or she is a NONNATIVE English-speaking teacher).

Intent to return home	Means
yes	4.18
no	3.43
not sure	4.57

P-value: 0.0505

- Means per intent to return in country of origin for I-36 (If I could choose a new teacher today, I would do).

Intent to return home	Means
yes	3.68
no	2.60
not sure	2.84

P-value: 0.0237

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